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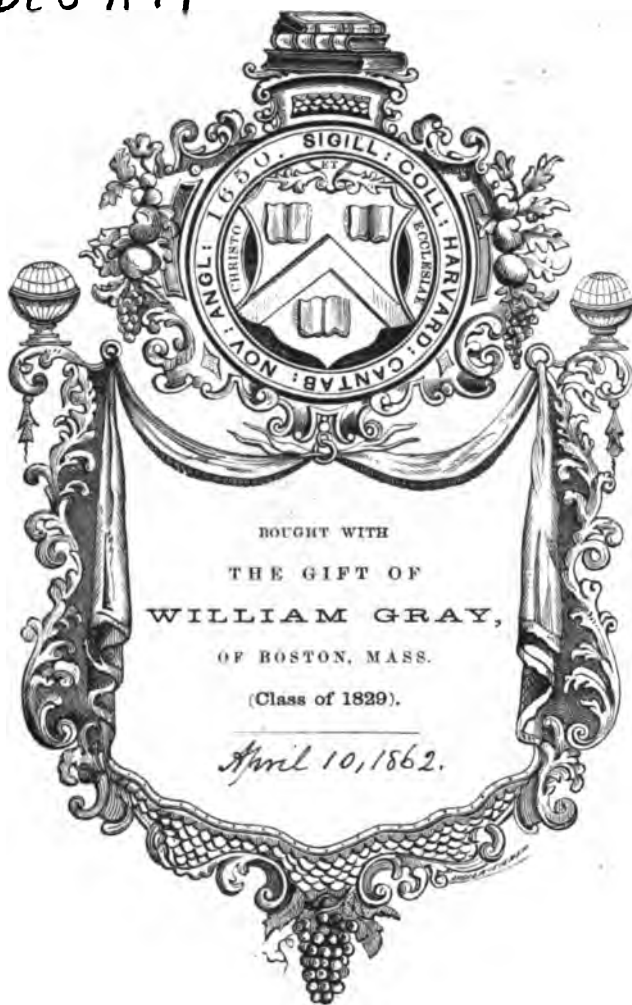
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ANNALS OF BRITISH LEGISLATION:

BEING

A CLASSIFIED AND ANALYSED SUMMARY OF PUBLIC BILLS, STATUTES,
ACCOUNTS AND PAPERS, REPORTS OF COMMITTEES AND OF COMMISSIONERS, AND OF SESSIONAL
PAPERS GENERALLY, OF
THE HOUSES OF LORDS AND COMMONS.

EDITED BY

LEONE LEVI, F.S.A., F.S.S., &c., &c.,

OF LINCOLN'S INN, BARRISTER-AT-LAW,

PROFESSOR OF THE PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE OF COMMERCE AT KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON;

AUTHOR OF "COMMERCIAL LAW OF THE WORLD," "MANUAL OF MERCANTILE LAW," ETC.

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PREFACE

THE object of the brief introduction to each volume of the ANNALS is to direct the attention of our readers to the most prominent documents therein inserted, and to the most salient facts therein contained. In the constant succession of events, both political and social, which are passing before us, and which so mould the internal and external condition of the State, we are in danger of losing the solemn lessons they are intended to teach, and of failing to recognize the links by which they are so closely bound together. Any means, therefore, which may be afforded for the better study of such momentous occurrences, and any guide which may direct the reader through the various divisions of our voluminous chronicles, may, we trust, prove useful and acceptable.

Under Series A, "Finance, Commerce, and Agriculture," we have many documents illustrative of the financial condition of the Empire when just emerging from the commercial crisis of 1857, and a record is there preserved of the Rates of Interests and Rates of Exchange at such a critical and eventful period. There will be found also in the Series, a minute delineation of the Trade of the United Kingdom, amounting in 1857 to the enormous sum of 334,000,000*l.*, so arranged that the reader can at a glance

perceive the magnitude of our commercial transactions ; the countries, in order of importance, with which they are carried on ; and the articles upon which our commercial resources chiefly depend. Particulars are inserted regarding the economical progress of many foreign countries, including Austria, France, Portugal, Spain, Turkey, the Italian States, Siam, and Central Africa. And the Correspondence on the Supply of Silver in the Markets of China furnishes an interesting illustration of the operation of the precious metals in the foreign Exchanges. In a return of the sums voted in supply we have an evidence of the immense increase in our Military Expenditure, which in 1835 was 11,730,000*l.*, and in 1858, 21,780,000*l.* ; and of the large amount spent under various heads of the Civil Service, including Education, Public Buildings, Harbours of Refuge, &c. Not less important is the return of the amount of property assessed under the different schedules of the Property and Income Tax in the United Kingdom. There we find that the amount of property so assessed in the year ended 5th April, 1857, was—in England and Wales, 261,069,680*l.* ; in Scotland, 30,498,404*l.*, and in Ireland, 21,488,343*l.* ; making a total of 313,056,427*l.* The principal Statutes, under this first Series, are those relating to the Winding up of Joint Stock Companies, and to the introduction of Limited Liability in Banking.

Series B, “Diplomacy and War,” contains the important Report on the British Consular Service, with copious references to the Consular Service of other Countries. The exceptional position and duties of the Consuls in Eastern Europe and in China ; the observations regarding the status and qualifications of Consuls ; and the tables showing the Salaries of British, French, and American Consular Officers, will be perused with interest. In this Series there will be found also the Papers respecting Foreign Refugees, and Correspondence respecting Passports—the results

of the Orsini conspiracy to murder the Emperor Napoleon. The report of the Royal Commissioners of the Patriotic Fund brings out in the clearest manner the enthusiastic response made by her Majesty's subjects in every part of the Empire to mitigate, by their generous benevolence, the evil produced by the war with Russia; not less than 1,500,000*l.* having been subscribed for the purpose, of which were 500,000*l.* from the British colonies and dependencies. The Correspondence on the Slave Trade shows the efforts made to extinguish this infamous traffic and the success which has hitherto attended such efforts. Not less than thirty-three men-of-war, with nigh 7,000 men are engaged in the suppression of the Trade on the West Coast of Africa, the West Indies, and on the South-East Coast of America.

Series C, "Ecclesiastical Affairs and Education," contains the Minutes of the Committee of Council on Education, showing the amount and distribution of grants, together with the Reports of Inspectors on the state of education in the various districts of Great Britain. The state of education in Ireland will also be seen in the Reports of the Commissioners on National Education; of the Commissioners on the Progress and Conditions of the Queen's Colleges; and of the Commissioners on the Endowment Funds and actual condition of all Schools endowed for the purpose of education in Ireland. These reports are full of particulars illustrative of the moral and intellectual progress of that people, as well as highly instructive as to the conditions necessary for the satisfactory working of educational institutions. With the passing of the Act on Scottish Universities a new era has been opened for the further advancement of those great seats of Scottish education and philosophy.

Under Series D, "Railways, Shipping, and Postal Communication," there is inserted the Return of Wrecks and Casualties on and near the Coast of the United Kingdom. Considerable

attention is now bestowed on the circumstances attending such casualties, and it will be seen that many wrecks are attributable to inattention, carelessness, or neglect, and to defects in ships or equipments. The want of a sufficient number of Harbours of Refuge has been greatly complained of. When we consider the immense increase which has taken place in the amount of shipping entered inward and outward in the foreign trade during the last fifteen years, viz., from 9,844,000 tons in 1843, to 23,178,000 tons in 1857, and the continued expansion to which it is subject, it will be admitted that every means should be adopted to diminish the dangers of navigation. It will, therefore, be satisfactory to find in the Report on Harbours of Refuge, that the Committee of the House of Commons have recommended a considerable expenditure for the purpose. Much information will be found under this Series on the working of our Railways. In the Report on Stade Tolls, there will be recognized another illustration of those obstacles to river navigation which the Treaty of Vienna of 1815 was understood to have completely removed; and as in the case of the Sound Dues, the European Powers are now negotiating with Hanover for the redemption of the Stade Tolls.

The Report on the Petition of Mr. Barber, inserted under Series E, "Justice and Crime," affords a most remarkable illustration of the want of a Court of Appeal in criminal causes. We may well sympathize with the sufferings and ignominy so wantonly inflicted on a gentleman of education, and withal innocent of the crime with which he was charged. The Report on Private Bill Legislation contains much information on the cost of the present Parliamentary legal procedure. What is being done for the criminal classes, and what reforms have been introduced in our prisons, may be best gathered from the Report on Convict Prisons in Ireland. The prison or the gaol is no longer the place of infamy and ruthless punishment of former days. Within

those gloomy cells the bright flame of hope is never extinguished, and that it is, that

"Sheds on afflicted minds the balm of comfort,
Relieves the load of poverty, sustains
The captive bending with the weight of bonds,
And smoothes the pillow of disease and pain."

A continuation of the account of the great Insurrection in India is inserted under Series F, "British India, Colonies, and Dependencies." The letters of the Secret Committee of the East India Company, of the Governor-General of India in Council, and of the Court of Directors of the East India Company, throw much light on the causes of that most unfortunate and tragic occurrence. Considerable amount of information upon Indian administration has also been inserted in this and previous volumes of the ANNALS. The Act for the better Government of India closes for ever the eventful history of that famous East India Company, which, with unparalleled industry, energy, and perseverance, have conquered for the British Crown a territory so vast and so rich, with upwards of 100,000,000 of inhabitants.

Series G, "Population, Municipal, and Parliamentary," contains much information on population and marriages, and concerning the amount expended for the relief of the poor. The paper on the number of voters which appeared in the Parliamentary register, compared with the number of voters who recorded their votes, affords a valuable illustration of the interest taken in different counties, cities, or boroughs, in electioneering matters. Among the statutes in this Series two stand out in bold relief; viz., one to abolish the property qualification of members of Parliament, and one for the admission of Jews into Parliament—statutes which form an epoch in our constitutional history.

Under Series H, "Health, Enclosure, &c.," there will be found a most valuable report on the prevalence of certain diseases in different parts of the kingdom, and on the preventability of certain

kinds of premature death. The reports on the Health of the Army and Navy are also highly instructive.

Such are the principal documents contained in the Sixth Volume of the *ANNALS*, completing the Legislative Acts of the Session 1858; and in submitting this other instalment of my labours to the appreciation of my readers, I trust it will meet with the same welcome reception as has greeted the early portions of the work.

LEONE LEVI.

10, *Farrar's Buildings, Temple,*
3rd April, 1860.

ANNALS OF BRITISH LEGISLATION.

SESSION 1859.—22° VICTORIÆ.

SERIES A. FINANCE, COMMERCE, AND AGRICULTURE.

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 8th July, 1858, for

1.—AN ACCOUNT of the GROSS PUBLIC INCOME of the UNITED KINGDOM of GREAT BRITAIN and IRELAND in the Year ended the 30th day of June, 1858, and of the Actual Issues or Payments within the same Period, exclusive of the Sums applied to the Redemption of Funded or paying off Unfunded Debt, and of the Advances and Repayments for Local Works, &c. (Mr. G. A. Hamilton.) 8th July, 1858. (402.)

INCOME.				EXPENDITURE.			
	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Customs	22,838,793	17	7	Interest and Management of the Permanent Debt...	23,564,375	17	7
Excise	17,944,000	0	0	Unclaimed Dividends paid	51,936	11	10
Stamps	7,649,598	7	9	Terminable Annuities ...	3,973,392	18	9
Taxes (Land and Assessed)	3,154,033	7	4	Interest of Exchequer Bonds, 1854 and 1855...	175,000	0	0
Property Tax	10,330,161	7	7	Int. of Exch. Bills, Supply Ditto (Deficiency) ...	781,917	10	0
Post Office	3,010,000	0	0		156	5	0
Crown Lands (Net) ...	276,654	4	1	Charges on Consold. Fund:—			
Miscellaneous:—				Civil List	402,077	13	9
Produce of the Sale of Old Stores, and other extra Receipts ...	1,033,464	8	10	Annuities and Pensions	332,781	15	7
Money received from the East India Company	60,000	0	0	Salaries and Allowances	157,307	9	1
Miscellaneous Receipts, including Imprest and other Moneys... ..	457,615	19	3	Diplomatic Salaries, &c.	160,235	1	11
Unclaimed Dividends received	125,395	11	10	Courts of Justice ...	576,226	8	8
	£66,879,717	4	3	Miscellaneous Charges ...	178,295	7	3
Excess of Expenditure over Income, in the Year ended June 30, 1858	346,809	15	3	Compensation to the King of Denmark	1,125,206	0	0
Total	£67,226,526	19	6	Supply Services:—			
SERIES A.				Army, including Militia, Commissariat, &c. ...	12,370,736	0	6
				Navy, including Packet Service and Transports	9,937,103	13	3
				Miscellaneous Civil Services	7,189,391	8	6
				Salaries, &c. of Revenue Departments	4,559,693	17	10
				Persian Expedition ...	900,000	0	0
				Expenses of the late War with China	590,693	0	0
				For Redemption of Exchequer Bonds	—		
				Sinking Fund on the Loan of 5,000,000 <i>l.</i>	250,000	0	0
				Total	£67,226,526	19	6

[1]

ber, 1857, were as follows:—January, highest, $94\frac{1}{2}$; lowest, $92\frac{3}{4}$; average, $93\frac{1}{4}$. February, highest, 94 ; lowest, $92\frac{3}{4}$; average, $93\frac{1}{4}$. March, highest, $93\frac{1}{2}$; lowest, $92\frac{3}{4}$; average, $93\frac{1}{4}$. April, highest, $93\frac{1}{2}$; lowest, $92\frac{1}{2}$; average, 93 . May, highest, $94\frac{1}{2}$; lowest, $92\frac{3}{4}$; average, $93\frac{3}{4}$. June, highest, $94\frac{1}{2}$; lowest, $93\frac{3}{4}$; average, $93\frac{1}{2}$. July, highest, $92\frac{3}{4}$; lowest, $90\frac{1}{2}$; average, $91\frac{1}{2}$. August, highest, $91\frac{1}{2}$; lowest, $89\frac{1}{4}$; average, $90\frac{1}{2}$. September, highest, $90\frac{1}{2}$; lowest, $89\frac{1}{4}$; average, $90\frac{3}{8}$. October, highest, $90\frac{1}{2}$; lowest, $86\frac{1}{2}$; average, 89 . November, highest, $91\frac{1}{2}$; lowest, $88\frac{1}{4}$; average, $89\frac{3}{8}$. December, highest, $91\frac{1}{2}$; lowest, $90\frac{3}{8}$; average, $91\frac{3}{8}$. Highest for the year, $94\frac{1}{2}$; lowest, $86\frac{1}{2}$; average, 92 .

Banks.—There were in 1856, in England and Wales, the Bank of England and 11 branches, 538 private banks and their branches, and 644 joint-stock banks and their branches; total, 1,194 banking establishments. In Scotland, there were 581 joint-stock banks and branches. In Ireland, there were the Bank of Ireland and 24 branches, 4 private banks and their branches, and 181 joint-stock banks and their branches; total, 210 banking establishments. In the United Kingdom, there were 37 establishments of the Banks of England and Ireland and their branches, 542 private banks and their branches, and 1,406 joint-stock banks and their branches; total, 1,985 banking establishments.

Rates of Interest.—The rates of interest on loans, on stock, or public securities, in each month in 1857, charged by the Bank of England, were as follows:—In January, 6 to $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on stock; in February, no loans on stock were made, and 7 per cent. was charged for discount of commercial paper; in March, 6 per cent. on stock and other securities, and $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. discount of commercial paper; in April, 7 per cent. on stock, 5 to $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on other securities, and 7 per cent. discount of commercial paper; in May, 7 per cent. on stock, $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on other securities and discount of commercial paper; in June, 6 to $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on stock, and 6 per cent. on other securities and discount of commercial paper; in July, $5\frac{1}{2}$ to 6 per cent. on stock or public securities, $4\frac{3}{4}$ to 6 per cent. on other securities, and $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. discount of commercial paper; in August, $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on stock and other securities, and $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. discount of commercial paper; in September, no loans on stock were made, $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. was charged on loans on securities, and 6 per cent. discount of commercial paper; in October, no loans on stock were made, loans on other securities were charged 8 per cent., and discount of commercial paper 9 per cent.; in November, loans on stock 10 per cent., on other securities 8 to 11 per cent., and discount of commercial paper 8 to 12 per cent.; in December, the rates on loans on stock were 8 to 10 per cent., no loan was made on other securities, and discount of commercial paper was at 11 per cent. The lowest rate of interest on loans on stock or public securities for the year was $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and the highest, 10 per cent.; the lowest on loans on other securities, $4\frac{3}{4}$ per cent., and the highest, 11 per cent.; the lowest rate of discount of commercial paper, $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and the highest, 12 per cent.

Prices of Gold and Silver.—The price of gold in bars was throughout, 3*l.* 17*s.* 9*d.*; and the price of doubloons, 3*l.* 16*s.* 6*d.* The price of silver in bars ranged between 5*s.* 1½*d.* to 5*s.* 2*d.*; and of specie dollars, Mexican, 5*s.* 0½*d.* to 5*s.* 1½*d.*

Rate of Exchange.—On Paris, in January, was 25·22½; and in December, 25·50. On Hamburg, in January, 13·6½; in December, 13·13½. On Amsterdam, in January, 11·17½; in December, 12·3½.

Prices.—The average weekly price of British corn in England in 1857 was as follows:—Wheat, 56*s.* 4*d.* per quarter; the highest having been 63*s.* 10*d.* on the 28th week, and the lowest, 47*s.* 5*d.* on the 52nd week. The average price of barley was 42*s.* 1*d.*; the highest having been 47*s.* 3*d.* on the 14th week, and the lowest, 35*s.* 9*d.* on the 49th week. The average price of oats was 25*s.*; the highest having been 27*s.* 11*d.* on the 34th week, and the lowest, 22*s.* 8*d.* on the 10th and on the 51st week. The average price of rye was 38*s.*; the highest having been 44*s.* 4*d.* on the 7th week, and the lowest, 31*s.* 6*d.* on the 52nd week. The average price of beans was 43*s.*; the highest having been 47*s.* 7*d.* on the 37th week, and the lowest, 38*s.* 11*d.* on the 9th week. The average price of peas was 41*s.* 4*d.*; the highest having been 45*s.* 3*d.* on the 44th week, and the lowest, 38*s.* 5*d.* on the 15th week.

Mines.—The following are the quantities and estimated value at the place of production of the principal minerals and metals produced in the United Kingdom in 1856:—Coals, 66,445,460 tons, value 16,663,862*l.*; copper fine, from British ore, 24,257 tons, value 2,983,611*l.*; iron pig, 3,586,377 tons, viz., 2,705,877 tons in England and Wales and 880,500 tons in Scotland, value 14,345,508*l.*; lead metallic, 73,129 tons, value 1,755,096*l.*; tin white, 6,177 tons, value 821,541*l.*; silver from lead, 614,180 ozs., value 153,470*l.* In England, there were 2,007 collieries, producing 49,043,215 tons of coals; in Wales, 395 collieries, producing 9,965,000 tons; in Scotland, 405 collieries, producing 7,500,000 tons; and in Ireland, 22 collieries, producing 136,635 tons; total for the United Kingdom, 2,829 collieries, producing 66,645,450 tons of coals. Of iron ore, there were raised 8,291,620 tons in England and Wales, 2,201,250 tons in Scotland, and 441 tons in Ireland; total, 10,493,311 tons, the estimated value being 5,695,815*l.* Of copper mines, there were in England and Wales, in 1856, 176 mines, producing 214,356 tons of copper ore, of the value of 1,293,827*l.*; and 14,078 tons of fine copper, value 1,731,594*l.* In Ireland, there were 11 mines, producing 11,590 tons of copper ore, value 115,393*l.*; and 1,154 tons of fine copper, value 141,942*l.* There were, moreover, 135,375 tons of copper ore and 9,025 tons of fine copper, value 1,110,075*l.*, purchased from sundry districts, value 335,296*l.*; making a total of 187 mines, producing 361,321 tons of copper ore, value 1,744,518*l.*, and 24,257 tons of fine copper, value 2,983,611*l.* There were in 1856, in England, 198 lead mines, producing 64,325 tons of lead ore, and 52,746 tons of metallic lead from ore. In Wales, 124 mines, producing 19,871 tons of lead ore and 14,921 tons of

metallic lead from ore. In the Isle of Man, 4 mines, producing 3,217 tons of lead ore and 2,450 tons of metallic lead. In Scotland, 9 mines, producing 1,931 tons of lead ore and 1,416 tons of metallic lead. In Ireland, 7 lead mines, producing 2,483 tons of lead ore and 1,601 tons of metallic lead. In the United Kingdom, there was 342 lead mines, producing 101,997 tons of lead ore, value 1,431,509*l.*, and 73,129 tons of metallic lead, value 1,755,096*l.* From the lead ore there were extracted 614,180 ozs. of silver, value 153,470*l.* There were also 160 mines of tin, producing 9,350 tons of tin ore, value 663,730*l.*, and 6,177 white tin, value 821,541*l.*

GOLD AND SILVER WATCH-CASES.

Return of the Quantities of Gold and Silver Watch-Cases marked at the following Halls during the Years 1856 to 1858 inclusive, viz., London, Chester, and Birmingham. (Mr. Hankey.) 8th July, 1858. (493.)

In the Goldsmith Hall, London, there were marked in the year ended 30th April, 1856, 22,931 watch-cases of gold, and 96,261 of silver; in the year ended 30th April, 1857, 26,796 of gold, and 106,860 of silver; and for the year ended 30th April, 1858, 24,870 of gold, and 83,614 of silver. In Chester, there were marked in the year ended 5th January, 1857, 11,260 watch-cases of gold, and 15,030½ of silver; in the year ended 5th January, 1858, 13,657 of gold, and 15,071 of silver; and to the 5th July, 1858, 4,189 cases of gold, and 6,824½ of silver. In Birmingham, from June, 1855, to July, 1856, there were marked 263 watch-cases of gold, and 33,865 ozs. 4 dwts. of silver; from June, 1856, to June, 1857, 249 watch-cases of gold, and 33,408 ozs. 5 dwts. of silver; and from June, 1857, to July, 1858, 52 of gold, and 23,926 ozs. 14 dwts. of silver. Nearly the whole of the gold watch-cases were made of 18 carats.

SPIRITS.

Returns of the Total Number of Gallons of Proof Spirits distilled in England, Scotland, and Ireland respectively; distinguishing the Quantities produced from Malt, from a Mixture of Malt and Unmalted Grain, or from Sugar or from Molasses; also, the total Quantity of each Sort in the United Kingdom for the Year ended 31st December, 1857, &c. &c. (Mr. Moffatt.) 9th February, 1858. (185.)

In the year 1857, there were distilled of proof spirits in England, 8,858,186 gallons; in Scotland, 13,299,409 gallons; in Ireland, 10,073,860 gallons; total, United Kingdom, 32,231,455 gallons. In the same year, duty was paid in Great Britain on 17,230,387 gallons at 8*s.*, producing 6,892,154*l.* 16*s.* duty; and in Ireland on 6,920,046 gallons at 6*s.* 2*d.*, 2,133,680*l.* 17*s.*; total, 24,150,433 gallons, 9,025,835*l.* 13*s.* duty.

SPIRITS.

Return showing the Number of Proof Gallons of British Spirits on which Duty was paid in Ireland in 1856 and 1857, the Amount of Duty received on the same, the actual Deficiency in Proof Gallons, &c.

IN 1857, there were charged with duty in Ireland for home consumption, 6,921,630 proof gallons; and for exportation to Great Britain, 970,691 gallons; total, 7,892,321 gallons. The duty received amounted to 2,522,259*l.* 7*s.* 3½*d.* The deficiency was 126,183 proof gallons, and the allowance made by the Inland Revenue, 118,925 proof gallons, 36,698*l.* 10*s.* 10*d.*

HOPS.

Return of the Quantity of British and Foreign Hops exported from the United Kingdom to Foreign Countries, of the Quantity of Foreign Hops imported into the United Kingdom, and of the Total Number of Pounds Weight of Foreign Hops charged with Duty for Home Consumption in 1857; also of the Quantity of Foreign Hops in Bond on 1st January, 1858. (Mr. John Locke.) 9th February, 1858. (133.)

DURING the year 1857 there were exported to foreign countries 1,450,104 lbs. of British hops, and 375 cwts. of foreign hops. In the same year there were imported 18,711 cwts. of foreign hops, principally from the Hanse Towns; and there were charged with duty for home consumption, 14,425 cwts. The quantity of foreign hops in bond on the 1st January, 1858, was 9,873 cwts.

SUGAR.

A Return of the Quantities of Sugar, &c., imported, and retained for Home Consumption, with Rate of Duty charged, and Revenue therefrom, from 1800 to 1857 inclusive. (Mr. Moffatt.) 9th February, 1858. (235.)

IN 1857, there were imported of British West India sugar, 9,171 cwts. equal to white clayed, 1,286,131 cwts. not equal to white clayed, and 1,664,806 cwts. not equal to brown clayed; of Mauritius sugar, 30,249 cwts. equal to white clayed, 555,195 cwts. not equal to white clayed, and 598,885 cwts. not equal to brown clayed; of British East India sugar, 25,148 cwts. equal to white clayed, 585,784 cwts. not equal to white clayed, and 570,605 cwts. not equal to brown clayed; of foreign sugar, 37,307 cwts. equal to white clayed, 1,126,127 cwts. equal to brown clayed but not equal to white clayed, and 1,901,287 cwts. not equal to brown clayed. Total of unrefined sugar, 8,390,695 cwts. Of refined sugar and sugar-candy, there were imported 533 cwts. of British possessions, and 328,589 cwts. foreign. In the same year there were retained for actual consumption

7,121,590 cwts. of unrefined sugar, and 297,928 cwts. refined. The net revenue from duties on sugar of all sorts, was 5,055,034*l*. The average price per cwt. of British West India sugar was 36*s*. 11*d*.; Mauritius, 36*s*.; British East India, 37*s*. 5*d*.; of Havannah, 38*s*. The rates of duty were from 5th April, 1857—equal to white clayed, 16*s*.; not equal to white clayed, 13*s*. 10*d*.; not equal to brown clayed, 12*s*. 8*d*.; refined sugar, 18*s*. 4*d*. per cwt.; molasses, 5*s*. The importation of sugar in 1857, comprised 2,945,635 cwts. from the British West Indies and British Guiana, 1,184,329 cwts. from Mauritius, 661,527 cwts. from Bengal Presidency, 422,175 cwts. from Madras Presidency, and 9,724 cwts. from Bombay Presidency; 45,068 cwts. from Penang, 1,173 cwts. from Ceylon, and 41,702 cwts. from Singapore. The importation of molasses was 306,153 cwts., principally from the West Indies. The importation of rum in 1857 was as follows:—From the British West Indies and British Guiana, 5,732,515 gallons, principally from Demerara, and from Jamaica; from Mauritius, 183,606 gallons; from East India, Ceylon, and Singapore, 385,336 gallons. Total, 6,301,457 gallons. Of coffee there were imported 4,056,379 lbs. from the British West Indies, principally from Jamaica; 32,777,053 lbs. from Ceylon, 1,042,238 lbs. from Madras, and 2,501,818 lbs. from Bombay. Of cocoa there were imported 3,932,121 cwts. from British West Indies, principally from Trinidad and Grenada, and 10 cwts. from Madras. Of cotton wool there were imported 1,443,568 lbs. from the West Indies, principally from Bahamas; 1,713,712 lbs. from Mauritius; 2,534,560 lbs. from Bengal Presidency; 17,245,424 lbs. from Madras Presidency; 228,521,328 lbs. from Bombay Presidency; and 2,036,832 lbs. from Ceylon. Total from British possessions, 253,495,424 lbs.

Of foreign unrefined sugar there were imported 3,064,721 cwts.; viz., from Cuba, 999,310 cwts.; from Brazil, 850,907 cwts.; from Philippine Islands, 398,608 cwts.; from the United States of America, 264,003 cwts.; from Porto Rico, 197,067 cwts.; and smaller quantities from other places. Of foreign refined sugar, there were imported 328,589 cwts., principally from Holland and Belgium.

SUGAR.

Return of the Quantities of Unrefined and Refined Sugar, of Molasses, and Rum, imported and cleared for Consumption, in each Year; ending 5th July, 1842, to 1858; Amount of Duty received on the same in each Year; and Average Prices per cwt. of Muscovado and of Havannah Sugars during the same Period. (Mr. Hamilton.) 23rd July, 1858. (462.)

THE total quantity of sugar and molasses imported (molasses being converted into sugar at the rate of 3 lbs. of molasses to 1 lb. of sugar) for the year ended 30th June, 1858, was as follows:—From the West Indies, 3,507,928 cwts.; from the Mauritius, 1,111,649 cwts.; from the East

Indies, 850,876 cwts. Total of the produce of the British possessions, 5,470,453 cwts.; of foreign produce, 3,908,802 cwts: aggregate quantity, 9,379,255 cwts. The total quantity entered for home consumption was 8,452,652 cwts. In the same year ended 30th June, 1858, there was imported of rum, 5,937,443 gallons from the West Indies; 176,987 gallons from the Mauritius; and 233,870 gallons from the East Indies. Total from British possessions, 6,348,300 gallons; foreign produce, 208,363 gallons: aggregate of rum, 6,556,663 gallons. The quantity entered for home consumption was 3,354,568 gallons.

The amount of duty received on sugar and molasses, for the year ended 30th June, 1858, was as follows:—Unrefined sugar of British possessions, 3,279,022*l.*; foreign, 1,962,366*l.*: total, 5,241,388*l.* Refined sugar of British possessions, 407*l.*; foreign, 252,188*l.*: total, 252,595*l.* The rate of duty on rum was 8*s.* 2*d.*, and the amount of duty on rum of British possessions, 1,361,929*l.*; foreign produce, 97*l.*: total, 1,362,026*l.* The average price of Muscovado sugar for the year ended 30th June, 1858, was, British West Indies, 30*s.* 7*d.*; Mauritius, 26*s.* 11*d.*; British East India, 26*s.* 8*d.*; Havannah sugar, 32*s.* 10*d.*

COPPER.

Return of all Exports and Imports of Copper and Copper Ore, and Regulus, Tin and Tin Ore, Lead and Lead Ore, and Spelter, for the Year ended 5th January, 1858. (Mr. Michael Williams.) 1st March, 1858. (151.)

DURING the year ended 31st December, 1857, there were imported into the United Kingdom 75,832 tons of copper ore, 19,262 tons of regulus, 2,571 tons of unwrought copper in bricks and pigs, rose copper, and all cast copper; 1,033 tons of old copper fit for re-manufacture; 3,864 tons of part wrought copper, viz., bars, rods, or ingots; 81 tons of plates and coin, and 975 tons of copper manufactured, and copper plates engraved. The copper ore was principally imported from Chili, Cuba, and Spain, the regulus from Chili, the unwrought copper from Australia, and the manufactured copper and copper plates from France. During the year there were exported of British copper, 7,146 tons of unwrought copper, in bricks, pigs, &c.; 154 tons in coin; 13,726 tons of sheets, nails, &c.; 13 tons of copper wire; and 3,103 tons of wrought copper; total, 24,142 tons. Of foreign copper there were exported 692 tons of ore, 1,392 tons of unwrought copper, 762 tons of part wrought, and 34 tons of plates and coin, and 1 ton copper manufacture. The British copper was principally exported to France, British East Indies, Holland, the Hanse Towns, Belgium, United States of America, Italy, Egypt, Turkey, &c., &c. From the port of London there were exported of British copper 9,335 tons, and from the port of Liverpool 9,129 tons. During the year 1857, there were imported 2,768 tons of tin, and 1,387 tons of tin ore and regulus; the tin princi-

pally from the East Indies, Holland, and Singapore, and the regulum from Victoria (Australia), United States, Peru, and France. The exports amounted to 2,187 tons of British and 380 tons of foreign tin, and 31 tons of tin ore and regulus of tin. The tin was principally exported to France, Turkey, United States, Italy, Spain, &c. Of zinc or spelter, there were imported in 1857, 18,001 tons, and of oxide of zinc, 429 tons. The zinc was principally imported from the Hanseatic towns. There were exported of British zinc 3,123 tons, and of foreign zinc 1,379 tons, principally to the East Indies. Of lead, pig and sheet, there were imported 12,768 tons; of lead ore, 953 tons; of lead (white), 74 tons; and of chromate of lead, 11 tons. The lead was principally imported from Spain, and the lead ore from South Australia and Italy. The exports consisted of 538 tons of lead ore, 19,272 tons of pig and rolled lead, 2,816 tons of shot, 662 tons of litharge, 2,540 tons of red lead, and 2,875 tons of white lead. There were also exported 2 tons of foreign lead ore, 240 tons of foreign pig and sheet lead, 3 tons of foreign red lead, and 4 tons of foreign white lead. The exports of lead were principally to China, Russia, United States, Australia, East Indies, &c.

COALS, COKE, AND CULM.

An Account of the Quantities of Coals, Cinders, Coke, Culm, and Patent Fuel, shipped coastwise, and the Quantities exported from England, Scotland, and Ireland, and from the United Kingdom; also of the Quantities of Coals and Patent Fuel brought into the Port of London in 1857. (Mr. Hussey Vivian.) 20th April, 1858. (279.)

DURING the year 1857, there were shipped at the several ports of England, Scotland, and Ireland, coastwise to other ports of the United Kingdom, 9,300,528 tons of coals, 35,226 tons of cinders and coke, 197,852 tons of culm: total, 9,263,606 tons; and 36,717 tons of patent fuel. The exports consisted of 6,483,416 tons of coal, value 3,019,228*l.*; 250,678 tons of cinders and coke, value 190,328*l.*; 3,624 tons of culm, value 1,105*l.*: total, 6,737,718 tons; and 84,032 tons of patent fuel, value 53,437*l.* The exports were principally to France, Hanseatic towns, Denmark, Prussia, Italy, Spain, British East Indies, &c. There were brought into the port of London, in the year 1857, 4,368,708 tons of coals, and 26,756 tons of patent fuel.

CORN (IRELAND).

Return of the Quantity of Corn, Grain, Meal, and Flour imported into Ireland from Foreign Parts and the British Colonies, in the Years 1852-57. (Mr. Bright.) 16th February, 1858. (101.)

IN 1852, there were imported into Ireland, from foreign parts, 834,926 qrs. of grain, 1,231,564 qrs. of Indian corn, and 107,842 cwts. of meal; in

1853, 888,865 qrs. of grain, 1,140,217 qrs. of Indian corn, and 232,435 cwts. of meal; in 1854, 510,282 qrs. of grain, 344,715 qrs. of Indian corn, and 62,644 cwts. of meal; in 1855, 441,372 qrs. of grain, 526,398 qrs. of Indian corn, and 87,464 cwts. of meal; in 1856, 604,317 qrs. of grain, 646,660 qrs. of Indian corn, and 66,424 cwts. of meal; and in 1857, 609,984 qrs. of grain, 572,893 qrs. of Indian corn, and 66,023 cwts. of meal.

MALT.

An Account of the Total Number of Quarters of Malt made in the United Kingdom, from the 1st day of October, 1856, to the 1st day of October, 1857, distinguishing the quantity made and the quantity used by Brewers, and by Victuallers, and by Retail Brewers, in each County. (Mr. John Locke.) 29th April, 1858. (338.)

IN the year ended 30th of September, 1857, there were made of malt in England, 4,734,339 qrs.; in Scotland, 641,483 qrs.; and in Ireland, 335,448 qrs.: total United Kingdom, 5,711,260 qrs. Of this quantity 4,162,471 qrs. were used by brewers and victuallers, and 394,172 qrs. by retail brewers: total used, 4,556,643 qrs.

SPIRITS.

Return of the Number of Gallons of British, Foreign, and Colonial Spirits, respectively, on which Duty was paid, in Scotland, for Eight Years ending 15th May, 1858; of the Number of Gallons of British Spirits manufactured in Scotland, and sent to England and Ireland for Consumption there, during each of those Years, till the passing of the Act 18 Vict. c. 22., in May, 1855; and of the Number of Gallons of Duty-paid Spirits removed from Scotland to England and Ireland, under Excise Certificates, since May, 1858. (Mr. Dunlop.) 26th July, 1858. (472.)

THE number of gallons of British, Colonial, and Foreign spirits charged with duty for consumption in Scotland was as follows:—In the year ending 20th of May, 1851, 7,340,917 galls.; in 1852, 7,015,846 galls.; in 1853, 7,418,112 galls.; and in 1854, 7,108,847 galls. In the year ended 15th May, 1855, the consumption was 6,691,856 galls.; in 1856, 5,587,621 galls.; in 1857, 7,488,251 galls.; and in 1858, 7,176,452 galls. The quantity of British spirits which paid duty was 7,060,433 galls. in 1851. It decreased to 5,399,358 galls. in 1856, and it increased again to 6,962,974 galls. in 1858. The quantity sent to England and Ireland, for consumption, in 1851, was 3,523,303 galls.; and in 1855, 3,584,803 galls.

SPIRITS (SCOTLAND).

Return of the Number of Gallons of British, Colonial, and Foreign Spirits, respectively, distinguishing the same consumed in Scotland for each of the Years 1852-57; and of the Number of Gallons of British Spirits manufactured in Scotland, and sent to England for Consumption there, for the same Period. (Mr. Dunlop.) 12th December, 1857. (111.)

THERE were entered for consumption, in Scotland, of foreign and colonial spirits, in the year ending 31st May, 1852, 246,675 galls., and in the year ended 31st May, 1857, 236,122 galls. The quantity of Scotch spirits consumed in Great Britain was—in the year ended 20th May, 1852, 9,144,491 galls.; in 1853, 9,265,303 galls.; in 1854, 8,934,805 galls.; in the year ended 15th May, 1855, the consumption was 9,151,768 galls.; in 1856, 7,991,325 galls.; in 1857, 8,916,079 galls. The quantity of spirits manufactured in Scotland and sent to England, for consumption, was—in 1852, 2,379,628 galls.; in 1853, 2,130,976 galls.; in 1854, 2,112,544 galls.; and in 1855, 2,709,721 galls. Since the passing of the Act 18 Vict. c. 22., in May, 1855, when the rates of duty in Scotland and England were assimilated, no account can be given, distinguishing the quantities of Scotch spirits consumed in Scotland from those sent to England.

FIRE INSURANCE.

A Return of all Sums paid into the Inland Revenue Office in Great Britain and Ireland, for Duty on Insurance against Fire, for the year 1857. (Mr. Greer.) 25th April, 1858. (365.)

THE gross amount of duty collected by each Insurance Company for the year ended 25th December, 1857, was as follows:—The Sun, 195,668*l*; Phoenix, 128,747*l*; Royal Exchange, 78,601*l*; Norwich Union, 78,301*l*; County, 62,201*l*; Imperial, 51,478*l*; Alliance, 44,907*l*; Atlas, 39,135*l*; Globe, 38,641*l*; Manchester, 37,178*l*; Royal Liverpool, 33,855*l*; West of England, 51,130*l*; Liverpool and London, 32,882*l*; Guardian, 32,151*l*; Law, 29,958*l*; London, 29,317*l*; Union, 27,832*l*; and other companies minor sums.

In Scotland, the seven companies paid unitedly 89,536*l* duty, the Scottish Union paying the largest amount, 27,536*l*. In Ireland, the Sun paid 8,875*l*; the West of England, 6,469*l*; the Patriotic, 5,898*l*; the National, 5,935*l*; Royal Exchange, 5,611*l*; the Globe, 5,156*l*; and other companies minor sums.

The sum insured on farming stock in England was 65,329,849*l*; in Scotland, 5,912,558*l*.

HOPS.

Account of the Number of Acres of Land under Cultivation of Hops, in 1857, and the Amount of Duty charged on each Collection of the Growth of 1857. (Mr. John Locke.) 7th December, 1857. (88.)

THE number of acres under cultivation in England, in 1857, was 50,974; and the quantity charged with duty was 47,717,561 lbs. The total amount of duty was 417,526*l.*, and the average amount of duty per acre was 8*l.* 3*s.* 9*d.*

TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Annual Statement of the Trade of the United Kingdom with Foreign Countries and British Possessions, in the Year 1857.

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.*]

THE real value of the total imports and exports of merchandise in 1857 was as follows:—Imports, 187,844,441*l.*; exports, 146,174,301*l.* The imports from foreign countries were computed at 141,661,245*l.*; and from British possessions, 46,183,196*l.* The declared value of exports of the produce of the United Kingdom amounted to 122,066,107*l.*, and of foreign and colonial produce, to 24,108,194*l.* The following is the amount of trading with each country in the year 1857:—

FOREIGN COUNTRIES.	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.			Gross Total of Trading Imports and Exports.
		British Produce.	Foreign and Colonial Produce.	Total.	
	£	£	£	£	£
United States and California ...	33,647,227	18,985,939	1,090,956	19,076,895	52,724,122
Central and South America ...	13,561,730	12,139,039	457,698	12,596,737	26,158,467
Egypt, Mediterranean Ports, and Tripoli ...	8,204,553	2,050,973	97,500	2,148,473	10,353,046
Holland and Dutch Colonies ...	7,459,852	7,180,963	2,510,201	9,691,164	17,151,016
Spain and Spanish Colonies ...	8,192,673	4,531,255	597,648	5,128,903	13,321,576
China ...	11,448,639	1,728,885	16,691	1,745,576	13,194,215
Russia ...	13,447,584	3,098,819	1,876,240	4,975,059	18,422,643
Hanse Towns ...	5,822,188	9,595,962	3,003,379	12,599,341	18,421,529
France and French Colonies ...	12,111,784	6,250,875	5,113,778	11,364,353	23,476,137
Prussia and German States ...	7,641,579	3,502,501	1,800,336	5,302,837	12,944,416
Italian States of Sardinia, Tuscany, Papal States, &c. ...	2,399,745	3,565,058	487,983	4,053,041	6,392,786
Turkish Dominions, Syria, and Palestine ...	2,477,758	3,810,776	164,078	3,974,854	6,452,612
Belgium ...	3,392,046	1,727,204	2,192,132	3,919,336	7,311,382
Denmark and Danish Colonies...	2,771,097	1,774,805	164,696	1,939,501	4,710,598
Portugal and Portuguese Colonies	2,449,144	1,585,767	334,571	1,920,338	4,369,482
Sweden and Norway ...	2,754,313	1,001,403	279,283	1,280,686	4,034,949
Other Countries ...	2,047,166	1,522,851	389,070	1,911,921	3,959,067
African States ...	1,832,167	858,344	251,091	1,109,435	2,941,602
Total ...	141,661,245	84,911,419	20,827,281	105,738,700	247,399,945

BRITISH COLONIES.	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.			Gross Total of Trading Imports and Exports.
		British Produce.	Foreign and Colonial Produce.	Total.	
	£	£	£	£	£
European Possessions	795,760	1,907,178	312,778	2,219,956	3,015,716
British East Indies	18,650,223	11,666,714	525,246	12,191,960	30,842,183
Australia	5,925,305	11,632,524	1,542,601	13,170,125	19,095,430
British West Indies and Guiana	7,214,566	2,349,041	251,754	2,600,795	9,815,361
Honduras and Falkland Islands	425,183	161,146	10,259	171,405	596,588
Singapore, Ceylon, &c.	2,444,078	1,412,939	57,843	1,470,782	3,914,860
Mauritius	2,288,188	663,554	18,646	682,200	2,970,388
African Colonies	2,010,561	2,231,452	168,766	2,399,218	4,409,779
St. Helena and Ascension	30,222	42,641	14,568	57,209	87,431
Hong Kong and Aden	758,464	39,127	797,591	797,591
British North America	6,399,110	4,329,035	339,325	4,668,360	11,067,470
Total	46,183,196	37,154,688	3,280,913	40,435,601	86,618,797
Grand Total	187,844,441	122,066,107	24,108,194	146,174,301	334,018,742

The following are the computed real value and average prices of the principal articles imported :—

ARTICLES.	Computed real Value.	COUNTRIES.	AVERAGE PRICES.			
			1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.
	£		£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Cotton, Raw	29,288,827	United States ... per cwt.	2 13 4	2 15 5	3 0 8	3 13 9
Corn	19,380,567	Wheat, Russia ... per qr.	3 16 6	4 0 0	3 13 0	3 0 10
Silk, Raw & Thrown	16,689,797	China per lb.	0 14 6	0 13 7	0 19 7	0 19 9
Sugar	15,550,880	East India, Brown Clayed... .. per cwt.	1 5 0	1 9 8	1 12 6	1 17 6
Wood and Timber	10,271,764	Russian Deals ... per load	4 10 0	4 10 6	3 6 9	2 19 2
Wool	10,988,021	Australia ... per lb.	0 1 6	0 1 6½	0 1 9	0 1 10½
Tea	4,677,470 "	0 1 3½	0 1 3½	0 1 2½	0 1 5½
Seeds	4,555,537	Linseed, Russia... per qr.	3 1 3	3 3 0	2 9 8	2 15 5
Hides	4,493,490	East India ... per cwt.	2 16 0	3 7 8	4 6 4	4 15 9
Oil	5,693,724	Olive, Two Sicilies per tun	57 2 6	55 2 6	51 10 0	54 1 9
Wine	4,080,744	Red Portuguese... per gal.	0 6 2	0 6 9	0 7 9	0 8 6
Guano	3,613,074	Peru per ton	11 0 0	11 4 6	11 12 0	13 0 0
Flax	3,524,767	Russian per cwt.	2 11 3	2 11 0	2 4 0	1 15 8
Tallow	3,285,048	" "	3 3 0	2 17 0	2 12 6	2 13 9
Copper	3,006,829	Brazil "	2 5 6	2 6 9	2 6 9	2 8 8
Spirits	2,921,499	French Brandy ... per gal.	0 8 4	0 9 9½	0 10 2	0 12 10½
Fruits	2,566,280	Currants, Dried... per cwt.	1 15 0	3 18 6	2 16 3	1 17 6
Indigo	2,185,452	East India "	23 16 0	27 8 0	30 11 4	33 1 0
Tobacco	2,182,587	Stemmed, United States per lb.	0 0 8½	0 0 8½	0 1 0½	0 1 0½
Butter	2,061,980	French per cwt.	4 4 0	3 18 9	4 5 0	3 19 8
Rice	1,999,117	East India "	0 14 0	0 14 6	0 10 6	0 11 3
Hemp	1,953,444	Russian "	3 1 6	2 6 0	2 2 0	2 9 6
Animals	1,776,817	Dutch Oxen ... per head	12 0 0	17 0 0	17 10 0	18 15 0
Coffee	1,720,465	Ceylon per cwt.	2 14 0	3 3 0	3 1 0	3 9 5
Madder	1,284,989	Holland "	1 15 0	2 0 0	2 1 0	2 7 0

The following is the declared value of the principal articles of British produce exported:—

	£		£
Cotton Manufactures ...	30,372,831	Silk and Silk Manufactures ...	2,889,829
" Yarn ...	8,700,589	Tin and Tin Plates ...	1,790,837
Woollen Manufactures ...	10,703,376	Apparel ...	1,680,776
" Yarn ...	2,941,800	Beer and Ale ...	1,592,267
Iron ...	12,854,758	Copper ...	2,980,096
Linen Manufactures and Yarn ...	6,174,833	Other Articles ...	28,263,608
Hardware and Cutlery ...	4,016,230		
Haberdashery and Millinery ...	3,893,616		£122,066,107
Coals and Coke ...	3,210,661		

The exports of the produce of the United Kingdom were from the following ports:—

	£		£
Liverpool ...	55,173,756	Leith ...	830,532
London ...	27,832,348	Bristol ...	760,729
Hull ...	15,758,813	Swansea ...	758,195
Glasgow ...	5,107,384	Stockton ...	740,942
Newcastle ...	2,145,396	Greenock ...	502,899
Southampton ...	2,065,045	Sunderland ...	475,843
Hartlepool ...	1,844,582	Grangemouth ...	445,078
Cardiff ...	1,533,013	Other Ports ...	2,912,061
Folkestone ...	1,148,318		
Grimsby ...	1,041,828		£122,066,107
Newport ...	989,345		

The exports from England amounted to 113,632,688*l.*; from Scotland, to 8,136,708*l.*; and from Ireland, to 296,711*l.*

The following is the total value of gold and silver coin and bullion entered at the Custom House for exportation to various countries:—

1857.			
	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
	£	£	£
Hanse Towns ...	348,534	587,352	935,886
Holland ...	3,309	34,724	38,033
Belgium ...	325,147	8,005	333,152
France ...	10,863,818	324,511	11,188,329
Portugal ...	244,283	6,822	251,105
Gibraltar ...	419,245	6,069	425,314
Egypt ...	305,996	17,295,432	17,601,428
Cuba ...	167,470	—	167,470
St. Thomas... ..	226,892	149,071	375,963
United States ...	843,130	15,980	859,110
Brazil ...	958,014	54,901	1,012,915
British Possessions in S. Africa...	118,097	—	118,097
Mauritius ...	55,541	—	55,541
British Possessions in India ...	1,168	—	1,168
" in Australia...	—	72	72
Other Countries ...	180,856	22,529	203,385
Total ...	15,061,500	18,505,468	33,566,968

FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

Abstract of Reports on the Trade of various Countries and Places for the Years 1855-6-7, received by the Board of Trade through the Foreign Office from Her Majesty's Ministers and Consuls.

[Presented by Command of Her Majesty.]

EUROPE.

Austria.—The area of Austria was 115,989 Austrian square miles, equal to 243,472 English square miles; including Lombardy, 375 Austrian square miles. The population in 1855, exclusive of the military, was 39,411,309, or 3,399 in each square mile. Lombardy had a population of 3,009,505. The religious persuasion of the people was as follows in 1851:—Roman Catholics, 25,509,626; Greek Church, 3,505,668 united, and 2,751,846 not united; Protestants, 1,213,897. Lutherans, and 1,869,546 Calvinists; Unitarians, 46,278; other sects, 455; Jews, 853,304. In the year 1851, there were 1,372,351 births, of whom 1,251,551 were legitimate, and 120,800 illegitimate. The proportion of illegitimate to the total number of births was 8·96 per cent. In Lombardy, it was 4·63 per cent.; in Carinthia, 34·51 per cent.; in Vienna, 52·01 per cent. The revenue of the Austrian empire, in 1856, was 27,316,372*l.*; and the expenditure, 33,551,594*l.* In 1855, the revenue was 26,378,688*l.*; and the expenditure, 40,268,618*l.* The public debt of Austria, in 1856, was 2,417,000,000 florins, or 241,700,000*l.* There belonged to Austria, in 1856, 651 vessels, 233,973 tons, for long voyages; and 2,742 vessels, 18,837 tons, for the coasting trade. The Austrian Lloyd Steam Packet Company had, in 1854, 60 vessels; and the Danube Steam Company, 83 vessels. The value of imports into the Austrian empire, exclusive of Dalmatia, for the year ended 31st of December, 1855, was 23,646,491*l.*; and the value of exports, 23,250,870*l.* The amount of duty received, in 1855, amounted to 2,097,821*l.* The imports for transit amounted to 14,404,652*l.* The Austrian empire comprised 140,455,478 English acres, of which 52,006,642 acres were of arable land; 1,739,138 vineyards; 20,001,792 meadows and gardens; 154,247 olive, laurel, and chesnut grounds; 22,091,231 pastures; and 44,462,428 forests. In 1851, the agricultural produce raised was as follows:—Wheat, 67,678,700 imperial bushels; rye, 98,967,200 imperial bushels; barley, 74,529,700 imperial bushels; oats, 131,566,400 imperial bushels; maize, 55,979,300 imperial bushels; rice, 1,436,500 imperial bushels; other kinds, 17,044,200 imperial bushels; total, 447,202,000 imperial bushels. Pulse, 11,083,830 imperial bushels; potatoes, 142,499,100 imperial bushels; wine, 622,482,000 imperial gallons; tobacco, 845,507 cwts.; flax, 1,303,045 cwts.; hemp, 1,795,752 cwts.; linseed, 579,253 cwts.; hops, 72,599 cwts.; wood and timber, 2,369,321,000 cubic feet; oil, olive and seed, 647,278 cwts.; and sheep's wool, 444,568 cwts. There were in the

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Austrian empire 3,229,884 horses, 116,210 mules, 3,795,348 bulls and oxen, 6,615,136 cows, 16,801,545 sheep, 2,275,900 goats, and 7,401,300 swine. The mineral produce, in 1855, consisted of—gold, 193,736*l.*; silver, 299,856*l.*; quicksilver, 47,124*l.*; copper, 287,788*l.*; iron, raw, 1,440,620*l.*; iron, cast, 377,804*l.*; coals, 465,755*l.*; Bovey coals, 264,064*l.*; lead, 210,621*l.*; with other minerals, of the total value of 3,724,644*l.* There were in the Austrian empire 44,193 public educational establishments, of which 206 were superior institutions—such as universities and other departments of arts, literature, and sciences; 388 middle schools, including colleges, grammar schools, mining, agriculture, navigation, midwifery, &c.; 63 academical schools; 1,676 schools for boys and girls; and 41,860 infant and other schools. In these educational establishments, there were 67,304 teachers and professors, and 3,345,613 students and scholars. The expenditure for public schools, in 1851, amounted to 325,800*l.* At the beginning of 1857, there were in Austria 2,002 miles of railway open for traffic, and 3,399 miles in course of construction. In 1851, there were in Austria 202 mills, 6,480 spinning machines, 1,482,138 spindles, employing 30,020 persons, and consuming in the year 611,750 cwts. of raw cotton. The quantity of beetroot consumed in the sugar manufactories amounted, in 1853, to 5,360,055 centners.

France.—The British Consul at Bordeaux reported that the trade of that town, in 1856, was, on the whole, good. The causes of such improvement were set down to the unwonted extension of credit, founded on the confidence of the political state of the country, to the increase of the home consumption, to the prosperity of the manufacturing and agricultural interests, wine excepted, to the importance of public works, and to the advantages which result from this extension of labour and production. A general revision of the customs' tariff would have a happy effect over the prosperity of that part of France. England might be instrumental in this desirable state of things, by reducing the duty on wine. The British Consul at Marseilles reported that the trade of that port in 1857 showed a considerable falling off. The British Consul at Algiers reported on the trade of that country. The countries which principally supply Algeria are Great Britain, Spain, the Barbary States; next in importance are Austria, Sweden, and Norway, the Two Sicilies, Tuscany, and Egypt. Great Britain furnishes cotton goods, coal, tobacco, iron, manufactured skins. Spain furnishes rice, potatoes, dry vegetables, fruits, and especially wine. Austria, Sweden, and Norway, furnish timber and iron; and Egypt furnishes tissues and carpets, which are brought by the pilgrims on their return from Mecca. From the Morocco, Tunisian, and Saharan frontiers, come cattle, tissues, hides, and manufactures of leather. The exports from Algeria are exclusively to France.

Portugal.—The area of Portugal Proper is 35,400 English square miles, with a population in 1854 of 3,499,121, or 98·8 to a square mile: of Madeira and the Azores, 1,488 square miles; population 344,998, or 231·8 to a square

mile; of Portuguese possessions in Africa, 530,112 square miles, population 1,055,838, or 1·9 to a square mile; of Portuguese possessions in Asia, 1,548 square miles, population 408,596, or 263·9 to a mile; and of Portuguese possessions in the Indian seas and China, 27,516 square miles, population 947,887, or 34·4 to a square mile. The revenue in 1856-7, was 2,867,875*l.*, and the expenditure 3,057,261*l.* The public debt amounted to 21,384,538*l.* The value of imports in 1854 was 4,171,269*l.*, and of exports 3,245,925*l.* From the port of Lisbon there were exported of wine in 1853, 27,448 pipes; in 1854, 26,227 pipes; in 1855, 17,792 pipes; and in 1856, 11,756 pipes. The island of Madeira is 300 English square miles in extent, and had in 1856 a population of 163,097. The value of imports was 118,950*l.* and of exports 77,150*l.* There were entered in that year in Madeira 172 vessels, 35,211 tons, and cleared 168 vessels, 32,733 tons.

Spain.—The area of Spain, the Balearic Islands, and Canary Islands is 182,750 English square miles, and the population in May, 1857, was 16,301,851. The revenue in 1857 was 18,126,314*l.*, and the expenditure 18,033,001*l.* In 1858 there belonged to Spain 5,175 vessels, 349,762 tons, and 13,397 fishery and river boats, 61,025 tons. The value of imports into Spain was 13,041,680*l.*, and of exports 10,636,171*l.* In 1855 there were in Spain 16,804,513 acres of arable land, 1,492,925 acres of vineyards, 857,468 acres olive-groves, 8,248,118 acres meadow and pasture, 3,733,296 acres hills and mountains, 35,573 acres of quarries and fish-ponds, and 1,075,672 acres waste lands. There were in Spain 680,890 cattle, 145,279 horses, 203,670 mules, 304,598 asses, 8,054,504 sheep, 1,496,501 goats, and 483,574 swine.

Spain—Cuba.—The area of this island is 48,489 English square miles, and the population in 1850 was 1,449,462, of whom 564,698 were white, 216,177 free mulattoes, and 668,587 slaves. In 1855 the imports amounted to 6,633,378*l.*, and the exports to 7,395,600*l.* The exports, principally the produce of the island, consisted of—sugar, 1,905,580 boxes; tobacco in leaves, 9,921,711 lbs.; molasses, 256,100 bocoyes; coffee, 473,399 arobas; cigars 356,582 mille.

Spain—Porto Rico.—The area of this island is 3,700 square miles, and in 1855 the population was 500,000, the number of slaves being 35,000. There were entered in Porto Rico 1,317 vessels, 167,203 tons, and cleared 1,276 vessels, 163,477 tons. The value of imports in 1855 was 1,157,175*l.*, and of exports 994,343*l.* The exports in 1857 comprised 80,982,188 lbs. sugar; 2,707,760 gallons molasses; 8,244,664 lbs. coffee; 4,935,134 lbs. tobacco; 612,430 lbs. hides; 276,310 lbs. cotton, raw. No foreigner can establish himself in the island of Porto Rico, without making public profession of the Roman Catholic religion, or finding some resident to become a sort of surety in his behalf, and taking out a letter of domiciliation, wherein he is reported to have sworn allegiance to the crown of Spain. In consequence of these restrictions, no British mercantile house was ever established in this island. The rate of exchange was stated at 500 dollars currency per 100*l.*

Spain—Philippine Islands.—Tobacco leaf is the most important article of export. The cultivation of sugar in Panai as an article of export is as yet in its germ, but, with a better system of crushing and boiling, sugar of an excellent quality might be produced.

Switzerland.—The population in 1850 was 2,392,740, of whom 971,809 were Roman Catholics, 1,417,786 Protestants, and 3,145 Jews. In the year 1857, the revenue was 627,440*l.*, and the expenditure 608,240*l.* The total area of Switzerland was 9,853,724 acres, of which 6,791,431 acres were cultivated, and 3,062,293 uncultivated.

Sardinia.—In 1857, the revenue of Sardinia was 5,438,692*l.*, and the expenditure 5,749,074*l.* The public debt amounted to 27,224,201*l.* In 1854 there belonged to Sardinia 3,174 vessels, 177,832 tons. In 1856, the declared real value of imports was 15,852,711*l.*, and of exports 12,523,164*l.* The exports comprised 416,000 kil. of silk waste, 227,732 kil. of silk raw, and 922,190 kil. of silk thrown. In the island of Sardinia, the imports amounted to 587,815*l.*, and the exports to 460,070*l.*

Tuscany.—The area of Tuscany is 8,442 English square miles, and the population 1,796,078. Of these 1,783,387 were Roman Catholics, 2,003 Protestants, and 7,688 Jews. The revenue in 1856 amounted to 1,265,891*l.*, the expenditure to 1,297,029*l.* The public debt of Tuscany was 4,165,442*l.* In 1855, the imports amounted to 3,006,564*l.*, and the exports to 2,323,238*l.*

Roman States.—The area of these States is 16,155 English square miles; and the population, in 1853, was 3,124,068. In 1857, the revenue amounted to 3,039,321*l.*, and the expenditure to 3,135,436*l.* In 1853, the imports were 2,553,734*l.*, and the exports 1,676,386*l.* Silk is the most valuable article of export from this country. The railway was progressing between Ancona and Bologna.

Two Sicilies.—The area of the kingdom is 42,693 English square miles; and the population, in 1856, was 9,117,050. In 1853, the imports were valued at 3,210,819*l.*, and the exports at 1,468,709*l.* In the island of Sicily, the imports amounted to 971,362*l.*, and the exports to 2,192,964*l.*

Greece.—The area of Greece is 15,000 square miles; and the population, in 1855, was 1,043,153. The revenue in 1858 amounted to 652,689*l.*, and the expenditure to 640,941*l.* The grain produce of Greece in 1856 was 956,239 quarters. In 1853, the imports amounted to 721,783*l.*, and the exports to 321,032*l.*

Turkey.—According to the census in 1844, the Turkish empire had a population of 35,350,000, viz., in Europe, 15,500,000; in Asia, 16,050,000; and in Africa, 3,800,000. There were in Turkey, 21,000,000 Mussulmans; 13,000,000 Greeks and Armenians; 900,000 Roman Catholics; 150,000 Jews; and 300,000 other sects. In Europe, however, the Mussulmans numbered 4,550,000; the Greeks and Armenians, 10,000,000; the Roman Catholics, 640,000; and the Jews, 70,000. In 1856 there were entered at the port of Constantinople, exclusive of Russian, 17,868 vessels, 3,702,000 tons; and cleared, 18,406 vessels, 3,676,302 tons. The island of Crete

has been increasing in prosperity from year to year. The population has nearly doubled since 1832; and the agricultural produce has also greatly increased. The Government, which formerly took one-seventh of the produce, now takes only one-tenth. The exports from Crete amounted to 433,240*l.* in 1856. At Brussa, a great market for silk cocoons, a malady somewhat cognate to that which prevailed in France and Italy, affected the silk. The British Consul at Urayo reported on the English mining establishment on Mount Pelion. The right of working this mine was conceded to Messrs. Edmund Leathy and Charles Grace. The present proprietor had expended from 40,000*l.* to 45,000*l.* on these works; and numerous veins have been discovered, from which considerable quantities of lead, silver, and gold are extracted. The foremen, smelters, refiners, and miners are all English, except a few Germans, Swiss, Poles, and Ionians. The company has 350 to 400 men and boys in their employ. Bosnia is rich in pasture-grounds, and these are particularly adapted to the rearing of cattle. Of the vegetable productions, plums are the most important. Great quantities are consumed in Bosnia; a great deal of spirits is distilled from them; and large quantities are exported into Croatia and Dalmatia. Most of the trade of Bosnia is carried on with Austria. Bosnia is in great want of proper roads of communication. The imports into Roumelia in 1856 amounted to 813,500*l.*, and the exports to 220,000*l.* The real wealth of Turkey consists of natural resources—her abundant raw material of every description; but to develop these, great capital is wanted. In Moldavia, the only means of transport from the interior is by carts drawn by oxen or horses. There are several lakes which extend nearly to the frontier, and which might, with a trifling outlay, be rendered navigable for lighters of several hundred tons burden; and, as they have all a communication with the Danube, might be made an easy and economical means of bringing produce to the shipping ports. Nearer to the sea are several salt lakes, which are a source of considerable revenue, as they produce large quantities of salt.

Russia — Poland.—Trade in Poland has been rather retrogressive in these last thirty years. The population of Poland in 1856 was 4,696,919. The value of imports in 1855 was 12,797,947*l.*, and of exports 18,133,162*l.* In the year 1856, considerable diminution was observable, in consequence of the impulse given by the transit through Prussia. The manufacture of woollen has been for a long time the special object of Government favour. The cloths made in Poland are of light description, and not so durable as manufactures of similar price and appearance in England. The cotton goods produced are extravagantly dear. Their cost is nearly double that of similar productions in England. Mining speculations were greedily taken up by the Government about thirty or thirty-five years ago, but they barely pay their expenses. Machinery comes in free of duty. Impatience of taxation finds its best safeguard in this country in throwing a careful veil over the extent of business done. This caution is visible in all classes, from the peasant weaver up to the opulent manufacturer.

Upon the progress of shipping and navigation in Finland, the British Consul reported as follows:—

“The commercial marine of Finland affords employment and the means of livelihood to the greater portion of the population along the coast, and a safe and lucrative investment to the merchant. Previous to the war, the merchantmen of Finland were engaged in the carrying trade in nearly every part of the globe, and occupied a conspicuous rôle amongst the maritime nations; but, what with the forced sales before the commencement of hostilities in 1854, the subsequent captures, and those destroyed by our cruisers, their merchant fleet was reduced to less than half its original number. The earliest authentic returns I have been able to procure relative to the commercial marine of Finland is for the year 1826, when the fleet consisted of 250 vessels of 34,132 tons burden, and afforded employment to 2,306 hands. Ten years subsequently, or in 1836, the number of vessels had increased to 380, of 62,492 tons, with 3,580 hands, showing an addition of 130 vessels of 28,360 tons during the short period of ten years. In 1846, the number had reached 502 vessels, with a burden of 89,586 tons, and employing 5,490 seamen, showing the same rapid progress, 122 vessels, of 27,094 tons, having been added to the merchant fleet of the country.

“At the close of the year 1852, when the commercial marine of Finland may be said to have reached its climax, and before any of the political troubles which subsequently ensued had disturbed the horizon, or induced Finnish shipowners to dispose of their vessels, the fleet numbered 507 vessels of a collective tonnage of 108,760 tons, and afforded employment to 5,760 hands, showing an increase of 257 vessels and 74,628 tons, or double the number of vessels and tonnage since the year 1826. But this flourishing state of things was suddenly subjected to a cruel change, as, during 1853 and 1854, 158 vessels of 51,698 tons were sold and disposed of abroad, and 89 vessels, 19,088 tons, were captured or destroyed by the allied fleets; leaving, after deducting losses by shipwreck, 295 vessels of 43,736 tons, as forming the sum total of the Finland merchant service on the 1st January, 1856. But, in addition to the actual merchant fleet, there exists in Finland a large number of coasting vessels, not adapted for long voyages, which are owned and navigated by the peasantry or inhabitants of the coast or inland lakes. This separate class of vessels numbered, in 1850, as many as 927 craft, of 49,300 tons, and afforded employment to upwards of 3,500 hands.

“These vessels are all very unwieldy, shaped after the fashion of a Dutch lugger: the largest carry three masts and load about 140 tons; others are only ten to twelve tons burden. They are chiefly engaged in the transport of deals, planks, and battens, from the sawmills on the shores of the Saima and other lakes, to the seaports, for re-shipment abroad, and also in bringing marble, granite, and iron from the quarries and mines near Sordavala and Pitkaranda to St. Petersburg, taking generally, as a return cargo, meal, flour, and colonial produce, for the supply of their home districts.”

The population of Finland may be taken to be 1,600,000. Industrial establishments and factories are numerous, and agriculture is very profitable. The trade of Wiborg has considerably increased. Many measures have been taken to promote the commerce of Finland. Direct communications

have been opened by railway and canal with St. Petersburg. A branch line of the electric telegraph was laid from Helsingford to Tavastchus. Some reductions were made in the Customs duties, and banks were about to be established in the principal places.

The aggregate exportation during the year 1857 from the Azoff was as follows:—994,511 quarters of wheat, 34,974 quarters of rye, 316,712 quarters of linseed, 9,588,096 lbs. of wool, 21,888 cwts. of caviare, 777,836 lbs. of tobacco, and other articles, of the total value of 3,658,463*l*.

Hanse Towns—Hamburg.—A great reform has been introduced into the tariff of customs, and one that will probably ere long lead to the total abolition of all customs at Hamburg. By a resolution of the Senate and citizens, passed on the 22nd December, 1856, the export duty of one-eighth per cent. has been totally abolished, as also the ship dues on river boats, and such sea-going vessels as arrive at this port laden with fish; as well as on vessels plying with passengers between Hamburg, Heligoland, Föhr, Norderney, and other neighbouring sea-bathing places. But, further, although by this resolution the import duty of one-half per cent. is granted for the years 1857 and 1858; still to the list of articles, already free from duty, many others are added, as cotton, wool, yarn mixed of cotton and wool; all luggage belonging to passengers, not exceeding the value of 100 marks banco (about 8*l*), exclusive of their wearing apparel; and all parcels of goods, the value of which may not exceed 20 marks banco (about 30*s*. sterling). By this resolution, also, goods declared in transit, that formerly were only allowed to remain at Hamburg for the space of three months free of charge, and on which, at the expiration of that time, a further permission for them to remain for three months could only be obtained by payment of one-quarter per cent. duty, are now allowed to be warehoused in transit for nine months, subject to the payment of one-eighth per cent. duty at the expiration of the first three months, and another one-eighth per cent. duty at the expiration of six months. This resolution also allows the value of goods, the prices of which are not quoted in the official Price Current, to be taken according to the cost price, with the addition of the expenses incurred on their way to Hamburg.

On the 1st of January, 1858, there belonged to Hamburg 491 vessels, of 191,244 tons. The value of exports to trans-Atlantic places, in 1856, was 4,969,190*l*. The rates of discount at Hamburg, from 1851 to 1857, were as follow:—In 1851, the lowest was 1·25 per cent., the highest 5 per cent., average 2·70 per cent.; in 1852, lowest 2·50, highest 5·50, average 3·18; in 1853, lowest 1·75, highest 4·25, average 3·45; in 1854, lowest 1·75, highest 4·25, average 2·50; in 1855, lowest 1·75, highest 6·75, average 3·75; in 1856, lowest 4·37, highest 9, average 6·16; in 1857, lowest 3·87, highest 10, average 6·43 per cent.

German Commercial Union.—The population of the Union, in 1855, was 32,674,265. The value of imports 4,736,475*l*., and of exports 4,628,511*l*. The import of cotton, in 1855, was 1,603,111 centners, of 110½ lbs.; and

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the exports 623,095 centners; leaving for consumption, 980,016 centners, or 3 lbs. per head. The number of German cotton mills has greatly increased since 1846. In 1855 there were 1,250,000 spindles, which produced 50 lbs. each. Many large establishments for the spinning of cotton were lately formed, owing to the high duties imposed upon foreign iron. The population of the German Customs Union pays for the consumption of iron, amounting to 20 lbs. per head yearly, about 6,000,000 dollars more than it would have paid if the importation were free of duty; and of these 6,000,000, scarcely one-third finds its way into the public treasury, whilst the rest goes into the pockets of the proprietors of mines and furnaces.

Leipzig.—The value in British money of the goods brought to Leipzig on sale, estimated at the same rate as in former years, was, in 1857, as follows:—German manufactures, 12,246,847*l.*; foreign manufactures, 3,228,824*l.*, of which British manufacture was 1,698,483*l.*

Netherlands.—The Netherlands Trading Company has, as usual, carried on its operations on a gigantic scale in 1857. The value of the chief articles imported by that body in that year was estimated at 7,500,000*l.* The great bulk of the colonial trade of the country is carried on with the colony of Java, and by far the largest proportion of the produce of the colony is imported into Holland by and on account of the Netherlands Government, through the Dutch Trading Company.

ASIA.

Siam.—On the east coast of the Gulf of Siam, from latitude 13 deg. 30 min., the head of the gulf, to latitude 10 deg. 39 min., where the Cambodian territory terminates, are numerous towns of various sizes and importance, but only two which possess the advantage of a safe port, accessible to vessels of large burden, viz. Chantabun and Kampot. In Chantabun, as at Bangkok, nothing can be done in the way of barter; all produce having to be paid for in hard cash. The only coin current is the tical; dollars would not be taken at any rate. There is, however, a local currency, the privilege of coining and circulating which is purchased from the Government by a Chinese merchant. It consists of flat circular lumps of coarse glass stamped with some Chinese characters, and bearing the fictitious value of salungs and fuangs. Precious stones are found in abundance. Pepper, sugar, aquila, wood, timber for shipbuilding, oil, coffee, are the principal produce. The currency of Cambodia consists of a tical, value 2*s.* 6*d.*, a flat coin stamped by European machinery, bearing on its face a representation of the king's palace, and on the reverse a cock as the royal arms. A salung and a fuang, of the value of 7½*d.* and 3½*d.* respectively, China cash, and a similar Cambodian coin, are also in use.

AFRICA.

Dr. Baikie reported that regular commerce in Western Africa has been carried on by the English for fully 200 years, during which time

their traders had confined their efforts almost entirely to the coast line, having rarely tried to advance to the interior. The commercial products fitted for European markets are palm-oil, shea-butter (analogous to but more valuable than palm-oil), palm kernels, camwood, cotton of excellent quality, groundnuts, indigo, gum, pepper, timber, ivory, and hides. Palm-oil is the most important article; but palm kernels is an article of great value, in which a trade worth 3,000,000*l.* might be established. The kernels yield a most valuable oil analogous in its properties and worth to cocoa-nut oil, besides which the refuse forms an oil-cake of great agricultural use. From Sierra Leone, 150,000 bushels of such kernels have been shipped. The average yield of oil from these kernels is 30 per cent. The trade with Africa is entirely one of barter. From the east coast of Africa, Commodore Trotter reported that simsin and ivory are the chief articles of export. The soil of Zanzibar is very rich, and peculiarly favourable to the cultivation of the clove-tree. The sugar-cane grown at Zanzibar is of the very finest description. At Ibo there is a very high tariff, which obstructs trade. Cottons were taxed 40 per cent. No English vessel has for some years visited any of the ports of the Mozambique. Large quantities of British manufacture find their way to Illorin, to be thence carried across the Niger into the heart of Africa. Rabba is likely to become of great importance. The yams are the finest to be seen, some weighing 45 lbs., as white as flour, and as sweet as a potato. Dawa, gero, mawa, and Indian corn are grown abundantly. The exports from the port of Lagos in 1857 were—4,942 tons palm-oil, value 222,000*l.*; 24,000 lbs. elephant tusks, 4,200*l.*; 868 bales of cotton, 3,590*l.*; and 50,000 cotton cloths of native manufacture, 25,000*l.* Total exports from Lagos, 255,000*l.* From other ports there were exported 16,650 tons palm-oil, value 732,000*l.* In Liberia, the principal productions are coffee, cotton, rue, pepper, palm-oil, camwood, cassava, ginger, and arrowroot. Small crafts, up to 35 tons, are frequently built, chiefly in Monrovia. The trade of 1856 consisted of 94 vessels, 29,893 tons, arrived and departed. The duties on imports are—all merchandise, 8 per cent. *ad valorem*; claret and malt liquors, 8 per cent.; brandy and wines, 1*s.* 7*d.* per gallon; gin, whisky, and rum, 1*s.* 1*d.* per gallon. The duties on exports are—palm-oil, 1*s.* 2*d.* per gallon; camwood, 2 per cent. *ad valorem*; ivory and specie, 5 per cent.; and all other articles, 2 per cent. The average market prices of the produce have been—palm-oil, 1*s.* 5*d.* per gallon; camwood, 13*l.* per ton; ivory, 4*s.* 2*d.* per lb.; screvellos, 2*s.* 1*d.* per lb.; timber for furniture fetches 8*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* per 1,000 feet.

AMERICA.

United States.—The British Consul at Buffalo reported on the trade, commerce, and navigation of that port, which showed a steady increase for many years past. The trade with Canada was also greatly increasing, in consequence of the reciprocatory system which exists between them since

1854. There was a project on foot for connecting the American and Canadian shores, by means of a bridge across the Niagara River, at about one mile to the north of Buffalo. The British Consul of Boston reported the trade of that town to have been 8,602,980*l.* imports, and 5,378,622*l.* exports. The exports of gold dust from California in 1857 amounted to 9,868,037*l.* The exports of quicksilver amounted to 25,400 flasks (75 lbs. each).

Brazil—Bahia.—The general import and export trade during the year 1857 was one of the largest on record, but the unfortunate financial crisis commencing in the United States and spreading over Europe, reacted prejudicially, towards the end of the year, against the flattering prospects of the earlier period. The exports of the season 1856-7 consisted of 36,650 tons of sugar, 13,050 bales of cotton (double that of the previous year), 83,958 bags of coffee, 7,152 bags of cocoa, 145,155 hides, 7,139 pipes of rum, 73,129 bales of tobacco, and 16,870 logs of rosewood. The discovery of the diamond mines in the district of Paraguassa, in the year 1845, had had great and beneficial results upon the population and commerce.

TAX COLLECTORS.

Return of the Number of Persons employed in collecting the Taxes paid into the Exchequer, distinguishing the Number employed for the Land and Assessed Taxes, Property and Income Tax, and those employed in the Excise Department of the Inland Revenue, and the Number employed in collecting the Customs Dues. (Mr. Ingram.) 29th July, 1858. (21.)

IN collecting the land and assessed taxes, and property and income tax, there were employed 44,141 persons; in collecting the excise, 4,077; in collecting the land and assessed taxes, property and income tax, and excise, 75; in collecting the land and assessed taxes, property and income tax, excise and stamps at the chief offices in London, Edinburgh, and Dublin, 326: total, 48,619. In collecting the customs duties there were employed 5,825 persons.

DUCHY OF CORNWALL.

An Account of the Receipts and Disbursements of the Duchy of Cornwall in the Year ended on the 31st December, 1857. (93.)

THE receipts during the year 1857, including balance in hand, amounted to 61,829*l.* 14*s.* 9*d.*; the payments 57,132*l.* 14*s.* 0½*d.*, including 39,112*l.* 10*s.* paid to the trustees of his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. The capital account of the Duchy of Cornwall showed a balance in hand of 27,641*l.* 2*s.* 1*d.* consolidated 3 per cent. annuities, 19,945*l.* 13*s.* 3*d.* reduced 3 per cent. annuities, and 18,755*l.* 4*s.* 3*d.* new 3 per cent. annuities.

No. CXV.—CONVICT PRISONS.

Reports of the Directors of Convict Prisons on the Discipline and Management of Pentonville, Millbank, and Parkhurst Prisons; and on Portland, Portsmouth, Dartmoor, Chatham, and Brixton Prisons; with Fulham Refuge, and the Invalid Prison at Lewes.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

Pentonville.—On the 1st January, 1857, there were remaining in confinement 558 prisoners; and during the year 1857 there were received 611 more, making in all 1,169 prisoners received; the daily average number being 512, who have earned by their labour 4,049*l*. The total expense of the prison, less the value of productive labour, amounted to 12,743*l*. The Rev. Mr. Kingsmill, the chaplain, reported that during the year there was a large number of educated men in the prison. He expressed himself decidedly opposed to transportation, and contrasted favourably with it the present home convict prisons. The medical officer reported that the daily average number of sick was 18·31.

Millbank.—On the 1st January, 1857, there remained in confinement 832 male convicts; and during the year there were admitted 2,046 more, making in all 3,102 prisoners admitted in the year; the daily average number being 1,109. The net cost of the prison was 33,637*l*. The religious persuasion of the convicts admitted in 1857 was as follows:—1,924 belonged to the Church of England, 432 to the Church of Rome, 135 were Dissenters, and 6 Jews. The medical superintendent reported a good sanatory state among the prisoners, the number of infirm sick being less than in the previous year. There was, however, a long list of insane prisoners.

Parkhurst.—On the 1st January, 1857, there remained in prison 429 boys; and during the year the number of boys admitted was 192; making a total of 621 admitted; the average number daily being 431. The net cost of the prison was 11,274*l*. The prisoners were employed in the cultivation of the prison farm by spade husbandry, including the care of the cattle, and other duties of the farmyard and homestead.

Portland.—On the 1st January, 1857, there remained in confinement 1,507 prisoners; and during the year there were admitted 863 more; making in all 2,370 prisoners. The prison expenditure amounted to 48,782*l*. 2*s*. 8*d*. The total value of labour performed by all hands throughout the year amounted to 41,855*l*, which, divided by 1,488, the average number of prisoners, gave 28*l*. 2*s*. 7*d*. as the rate per man. The chaplain reported that 30 prisoners, who had at different periods been discharged, have been employed by the Messrs. — at the — harbour works, and very satisfactory reports have been obtained. “The Discharged Prisoners’ Aid Society” have also assisted several prisoners discharged from Portland in obtaining employment. Their published statement explains the objects they have in view as follows:—

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“ The object of this society is to aid discharged prisoners in finding for themselves honest employment. In consequence of the great number of criminals who are released in this country, an undertaking of this nature is imperatively required. Discharged prisoners, however willing to work, are often unable to obtain employment for want of a medium of access to employers. The society steps in to supply the want. It creates no employment. It needs no expensive establishment. It facilitates the honest endeavours of discharged prisoners, whose reabsorption into the industrial trades is for the interest of all classes, both employers and employed. It invites and registers applications for such men’s services in the various fields of labour. Under certain circumstances, and with due caution, it offers guarantees to a limited amount for their conduct.

“ To the success of this undertaking the good-will of the working-classes is no less needful than the co-operation of the employers, for with their cognizance and concurrence alone can the objects of this society be fairly attained. That private benevolence is the best, if not the only, means of dealing effectually with this difficulty, is proved, by the long experience of countries which have never possessed the outlet of penal colonies. The functions which this society proposes to undertake will correspond with those of the society recently established at Birmingham, which has received the cordial support of the manufacturers and working-classes. The society appeals to the public for subscriptions to an object of such obvious and imperative necessity, and looks with confidence to receiving from all classes that sympathy which by God’s blessing can alone warrant the expectation of a satisfactory issue to the undertaking.”

Portsmouth.—In the Portsmouth prison, on the 1st January, 1857, there were confined 1,018 convicts; and during the year 978; making in all 1,996 convicts admitted. The total value of the prisoners’ labour at the prison has been 28,392*l*. The expense of the prison amounted to 35,288*l*. There were 372 men liberated on licence during the year; making a total of 1,494 thus liberated since the commencement of the operation of the Act of Parliament. Within the year 59 men have been returned with licences revoked.

Dartmoor.—On the 1st January, 1857, there remained in confinement 1,015 prisoners; and during the year there were admitted 654; making in all 1,669 prisoners received in this prison. The conduct of the prisoners was good. The expense of the prison amounted to 40,460*l*. The medical officer reported on the health of the prisoners: upwards of 100 weak-minded men were in the prison; whilst the great body of prisoners consisted of the aged, the sick, and the imbecile. The situation of the prison was described in the following manner by the late Sir George Magrath, when the prisoners of war were quartered at Dartmoor:—

“ From personal correspondence with other establishments similar to Dartmoor, I presume the statistical records of that great tomb of the living, (embosomed as it is in a desert waste of wild and, in the winter time, terrible scenery, exhibiting the sublimity and grandeur occasionally of elemental strife, but never partaking of the beautiful of nature; its climate,

too, cheerless and hyperborean,) with all its disadvantages, will show that the health of its incarcerated tenants, in a general way, equalled, if not surpassed, any war prison in England or Scotland. This might be considered an anomaly in sanatory history, when we reflect how ungenially it might be supposed to act on southern constitutions; for it was not unusual in the months of December and January for the thermometer to stand at from 33 to 35 degrees below freezing, indicating cold almost too intense to support animal life. But the density of the congregated numbers in the prison created an artificial climate, which counteracted the torpifying effect of the Russian climate without. Like most climates of extreme heat or cold, the new comers required a seasoning to assimilate their constitutions to its peculiarities, in the progress of which indisposition incidental to low temperature assailed them; and it was an every-day occurrence among the reprobate and incorrigible classes of the prisoners, who gambled away their clothing and rations, for individuals to be brought up to the receiving-room in a state of suspended animation."

Chatham.—On the 1st January, 1857, there were in the prison 834 convicts; and during the year 649 were received; making in all 1,483. The total value of their labour amounted to 20,365*l.* 16*s.* 7*d.*, or 22*l.* 18*s.* 8½*d.* per man. The expenses of the prison were 32,637*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.* The number of discharges on licence during the year was 69.

Brixton.—On the 1st January, 1857, there were remaining in prison 567 female convicts; and during the year there were received 217 more; making in all 784. The total expenditure for the year ending 31st March, 1858, amounted to 14,678*l.* The chaplain reported several particulars as to the causes of crime, and other matters relating to the prisoners. Of 1,382 prisoners received in Brixton prison up to 31st December, 1857, the causes of crime were as follows:—Drink, 88; drink or bad company, or both, 676; ran away from home or from service, 245; say innocent, 53; say want, 28; suddenly, and from causes not easily specified, 90; recorded before, 102; not recorded, papers having been lost, 100. Their educational state was as follows:—Uneducated, 709; tolerably educated, but in numerous instances the education was received in prison, 615; pretty well educated, 10; unaccounted for, 48. The religious knowledge was extremely limited in all the prisoners; upwards of 1,000 of them entirely neglected public worship, and not many of the remaining 382 attended with any degree of regularity.

Fulham Refuge.—The Refuge at Fulham was established for the purpose of placing such of the convict women as might appear eligible in an *intermediate* state of discipline between close imprisonment and discharge on licence, in which, though not subject to strict penal control, they might have facilities for the acquirement of some knowledge of household work, as washing, cooking, &c., calculated to promote habits of industry. Another object was to obtain a better means of disposal on discharge than is afforded from a prison, and to be a substitute for those changes afforded to male prisoners by removal to public works. On the 1st January, 1857, there

were in Fulham Refuge 156 convicts, and during the year 92 convicts were received from Brixton, making in all 248. The expenditure connected with the refuge amounted to 6,541*l.* 12*s.* 4½*d.*

Lewes.—On the 1st January, 1857, there were remaining in confinement on board the *Defence* hulk 285 prisoners, and during the year there were received 311 more, making in all 596 prisoners. The expenditure during the year amounted to 12,672*l.* 6*s.* 2*d.* On the 14th July last, the *Defence* hulk took fire, and was rendered useless as a convict hulk. Out of 268 prisoners, 150 were removed to Millbank prison.

No. CXVI.—CONVICT PRISONS.

Report on the Discipline of the Convict Prisons for 1856 and 1857, and the Operation of the Acts 16 & 17 Vict. c. 99 (1853), and 20 & 21 Vict. c. 3 (1857), by which Penal Servitude has been substituted for Transportation. By Colonel Jebb, C.B.

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.*]

THE general statistics for the years 1856 and 1857 were as follows:— Number of male convicts in prison, on the 1st January, 1856, 6,531; received in the years 1856 and 1857, 6,610; total, 13,141. Disposed of in the years 1856 and 1857, 5,564; remaining on the 31st December, 1857, 7,577. Of the disposed of, 1,858 were transported; 91 were removed to other prisons; 3,433 were released, 2,713 of whom by licence; 17 escaped; and 160 died. Of the female convicts, there were in prison on the 1st January, 1856, 782; and during 1856 and 1857 there were received 580, making in all 1,362. Disposed of in the same years, 434; remaining in prison on the 31st December, 1857, 928. Of those disposed of, 8 were removed to lunatic asylums; 397 were released, 256 of whom by licence; and 29 died.

The following is an outline of the measures taken for the management of convicts.

By a scheme laid down by Lord Stanley, when Colonial Minister in 1842, the great body of convicts were removed, after spending various periods on board the hulks at Woolwich and Portsmouth, to Van Diemen's Land, where they were divided into one or other of the following classes:—

1. Norfolk Island, for all persons convicted of the heaviest offences;
2. Probation gangs, in Van Diemen's Land, as the second stage of the above, and the first stage for all other convicts;
3. Probation passes, divided into the three classes, conferring different degrees of privileges;
4. Tickets of leave; and
5. Pardons, conditional or absolute.

This system, however, failed; first, because it had the effect of congregating the men in masses, and vice was rendered far more intense and inconvenient; and secondly, because the supply of convicts was greater than the demand by which their services could be absorbed. Considerable difficulties thereafter arose in Van Diemen's Land. Before the middle of 1856, the moral

degradation of the convicts had become such that decisive steps were indispensable. Attempts were then made to form a new colony, to be called North Australia, but these were relinquished soon after, and the distinct penal establishment at Norfolk Island was also abandoned. In 1847, Sir George Grey determined on the foundation of the convict establishment at Portland, with a view to carrying into effect the systematic application of convict labour on national works of importance, and as affording, with the previous instruction in separate confinement, the best means of training the men to habits of industry. The discipline, as first organized, embraced a period of from twelve to eighteen months of separate confinement, followed with hard labour, on the public works at Portland, or in the hulks for a time proportioned to the sentences. In 1850 transportation ceased to be a means of disposal of convicts, and the Penal Servitude Act was passed in 1853. The Act gave the power of release on licence, since popularly known as "ticket of leave," by which, instead of the convicts being free after undergoing a commuted sentence of imprisonment, as was formerly the case with all who obtained their liberty in this country, they received a licence, or revocable pardon, only. The Act also substituted sentences of penal servitude for all crimes formerly visited by sentences of transportation to periods under fourteen years, leaving it open to pass sentences of transportation, as before, for periods of fourteen years and upwards. This Act reduced the numbers annually sentenced to transportation in Great Britain, from an average of about 3,200 in the five years previous to 1852, to an average of 235, or about one-fourteenth, during the years from 1854 to 1857. In 1857, the number of sentences to transportation was 110, and to penal servitude 2,474. The estimated cost of transportation and convict prisons in the United Kingdom in 1851 was 587,294*l.*, and net cost, after deducting value of labour, 419,475*l.* The cost of an assumed maximum of 17,250 prisoners and 1,200 females, in Great Britain and Ireland, with a limited number in Western Australia, was 370,750*l.*; net cost, after deducting value of labour, 195,700*l.* The average value of the labour of the whole of the convicts of Great Britain who are employed on the public works may be assumed to be at least 24*l.* In 1857, an Act was passed under which a small proportionate remission would be given as a reward for good conduct, on advantageous terms, and with good hope for the result. The advantages of the present system, as compared with the past, consist—

- 1, On its deterring effects; 2, On the degree of encouragement it affords;
- 3, On the means of dealing with refractory convicts; and, 4, On the future prospects and means of employment of persons on discharge.

1. *Repression.*—The system which has superseded transportation, involving, as it does, far longer periods of imprisonment than were before enforced, will present to the mind of every convict, and through him to the criminal classes generally, a more severe aspect, and be more dreaded than the shorter periods of confinement, followed by removal to a colony with a ticket of leave.

2. *Encouragement to Good Conduct and Industry.*—It is anticipated that

the proposed remission of sentences, combined with the established stages of discipline, gratuities, &c., fully explained in the notice, will prove a sufficient and wholesome stimulus to good conduct and industry.

3. *Refractory and Incurrible Prisoners.*—The management of prisoners who have been found incurrible by ordinary discipline is under any circumstances a difficult task; but it can be accomplished more safely and effectually under close supervision at home, than by removing the evil to a distance and out of sight in a penal colony. Experience having shown that many of the most hardened and reckless characters have become tractable after passing through the probation class at Pentonville, it will be a more just and humane course not to extinguish all hope and give them up to irretrievable ruin, but to keep them under special discipline and control so long as it may appear necessary, restoring from time to time such as may deserve it to their ordinary position.

4. *The Future Prospects of Employment and Means of Disposal.*—No plan of release at home will ever regain the satisfactory results of removal to a *prosperous* colony with a ticket of leave. The convicts were morally better off, and, allowing for occasional fluctuations in the demand from over-supply, there existed a more steady employment, and, what is of the greatest importance, the means of dispersion. How can this desideratum in a system aiming at the resolution of the complicated problems of the convict question be regained? The ordinary difficulties of finding employment in this country are greatly increased in the case of a man whose connection with the world outside has been broken off for some years, and who has besides to contend against loss of character. These being the two great difficulties in the way of a prisoner, it will be well to confine attention to the means of obviating them as they meet a man on his very first step over the threshold of the prison. Since the commencement of the plan for releasing prisoners on licence, efforts have been made by officers of the Government to secure the means of honest employment to discharged prisoners; these have been seconded by the clergy generally, and by benevolent societies formed for this special object. The results of these efforts have been encouraging, not only in the great good that has been effected, but as showing the increasing amount of public interest in this object; at the best, however, they have been desultory, and more calculated to disclose the pressing nature of the claims than effectually to provide for them.

What convicts require, after their discharge into a world from which they have been excluded for some years, is a temporary home or a near prospect of employment, friendly advice under the new circumstances in which they are placed in relinquishing a course of crime and entering on one of industry, protection against imposition, encouragement, and generally a helping hand. No officers belonging to a prison can discharge such duties with effect. To be done at all, some external agency, such as that employed by societies having similar objects, must be resorted to. Thus several institutions, such as the Refuge for the Destitute, Manor Hall, and the London Reformatory, have been established, with a view to *training* those who have been in prison; and in each of them there exists an organized and comprehensive scheme for the *future disposal* of every one who becomes an inmate. Other societies have confined their operations simply to rendering assistance without incurring the responsibility and expense of previously training those who apply. The Elizabeth Fry Refuge and the Prisoners' Aid Societies, in London and Birmingham, are examples of the

latter most useful and increasing class of institutions. As the prisoners discharged from convict prisons have received the means of instruction, these latter are the societies which can give the most effectual aid. The more extended labours of the other class are especially needed to receive prisoners after short periods of confinement, and, in point of fact, to afford them the same training which convicts receive at the hands of the Government, and to assist in their disposal afterwards.

If the expenses connected with the trial, confinement, and subsequent disposal of a single convict be considered, any sum expended in assistance after discharge would be covered by the rescue of a very limited proportion. In many cases a single reconvicted prisoner costs as much as would rescue fifty. Hence, as a measure of prevention, there exists a prospect of effecting great good at a very limited expense.

The following extract from the First Report of the Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society will show the course of proceeding that has been adopted and its results:—

“The Committee now feel it their duty to lay before the public a short statement of the operations of the Society, and of the conclusions to which they have been led by the experience of the past nine months. The first case entertained by the Society was that of a convict discharged from Portsmouth Prison in June, 1857. From that time to 15th March, 1858, 141 cases have engaged their attention, and the applications of many more have been rejected as unworthy their consideration, or not coming properly within the scope of the Society's usefulness. 46 have been employed or offered employment in this country. 19 have been aided in other ways. 26 have been assisted to emigrate. 19 are still under the active operation of the Society, and 31 who are still in prison are looking forward to its help. Of those classed under the first head, 25 men and 4 women have retained their situations, and are going on, as far as can be ascertained, satisfactorily. 3 men have been discharged, owing to a reduction in the staff of their employers, with a promise that when more hands are wanted, they shall be taken on again. 9 men and 3 women declined the employment offered to them, or left their work. 2 men absconded from their employers, charged with dishonest practices. Under the second head, assistance has been rendered in various ways; some have been found in an utterly destitute condition, maintained for a few days, and placed in reformatories; others have been sent home to their friends, &c.”

No. CXVII.—CONVICT PRISONS (IRELAND).

Fourth Annual Report of the Directors of Convict Prisons in Ireland.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

THE accommodation for convicts in the Government prisons on the 1st January, 1858, may be estimated at 3,486. On the 1st January, 1858, there were in custody 1,608 males and 674 females; total, 2,282; besides 21 in county and city gaols. In Ireland, there are intermediate prisons at Smithfield and Lusk, from whence prisoners are discharged on licence. These intermediate prisons are founded purposely for the purpose of reformation, the prisoner being there trained for his complete discharge;

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and it has been found by experience that from 70 to 75 per cent. of convicted prisoners may be removed to these intermediate establishments. During 1857 there were 250 discharged, of whom 159 were from Smithfield, Lusk, and the forts. The lecturer in these institutions becomes the private friend of all the prisoners, and his labours in and out of the prison on behalf of the prisoners are highly appreciated. We subjoin some extracts from his valuable report:—

“The example which Christ has left us in His promise to the good thief on the cross should be before every teacher engaged to contribute his mite to the work of criminal reformation; and though he may entertain greater hopes of effecting the reformation of a juvenile, yet he is not to despair of the reformation of an adult by proper discipline, however improbable it may at first sight appear.

“I have from a very early age regarded the mission of a teacher as a high and important one, though I must confess it is not considered so by some; but it always struck me that teachers were, generally speaking, apt to consider themselves too elevated beyond the ordinary class of society with which from their position they must necessarily come in contact day after day. I now mean the working-classes. This opinion, formed, I might say, in youth, was strengthened by an after-knowledge of the same opinion being entertained by educationists whose writings have formed part of my studies of late years. I cannot bring to mind at present the name of that thinker who said that—‘A good schoolmaster is a man who ought to know a great deal more than he teaches, in order to teach with intelligence and taste; who must live in an humble sphere, and yet have an elevated mind to enable him to preserve that dignity of sentiments, and even of manners, without which he will never obtain the respect and confidence of families. He must possess a rare mixture of mildness and firmness; for he is the inferior of many, and yet must be the abject servant of none; aware of his rights, but thinking much more of his duty, setting an example to all; the adviser of every one, especially never trying to renounce his profession; satisfied with his vocation, from a strong conviction that he is doing good; resolved to die within the sphere of his school in the service of elementary education, which for him is the service of God and man.’

“Such should be the mission of every teacher; but to me the mission of a prison teacher appears still more important. He is to act the parent and the friend, as well as the teacher. He is a teacher not alone of those who have never known the school, but who also, having been acquainted with innocence, have fallen from it; or, more important still, a teacher of those who have known neither God’s law nor man’s law, and who are as ignorant of the elements of religion as of knowledge. He should remember that no cheerful home, no affectionate parent, no gay companion, no pleasing pastime, awaits them when the ‘bell tolls the hour for retiring.’ No! The narrow cell is their home; their own unhappy thoughts their companions; and the monotonous pacing of their sleeping-place their pastime, listening to the clashing of bolts and bars!

“The thoughts of the prisoner when alone in a great measure depend upon the mental food given to them during the day to digest, and we all know how true it is that ‘bad thoughts quickly ripen into bad actions.’ The prison teacher must ever bear in mind that his pupils are the children

of affliction, nursed, as many of them have been, in crime, even from their mothers' breasts. If he do this, he will soon learn one of the most important branches of his profession—sympathy:

'What gem hath dropp'd and sparkled o'er his chain
The tear most sacred, shed for others' pain;
That starts at once bright, pure, from pity's mine,
Already polished by the hand divine.'

"The prison teacher must not only teach—he must convince. He must win the affections of his pupils before his advice can take effect upon their minds and hearts; and this he can best do by proving to them that he is not alone a humane officer, but a sympathising friend. By this means he will soon command the attention of his pupils, easily inspire them with a love for knowledge, and create in their bosoms a lively confidence. Such a teacher's authority is sure to be respected, and the man himself esteemed; and, as an agent in the world of criminal reformation, he is second to none. We should bear in mind that though 'sweet are the uses of adversity,' there are times when adversity hardens the hearts of her children, and 'borrows her sharpest sting from impatience,' especially from that impatience which is the characteristic of the majority of prisoners.

"Advice, accompanied by sympathy, has a great effect even on the incorrigible prisoner, if prudently and wisely given. Of course, we should not expect to see the effect all at once; but continue the medicine at proper intervals, and in proper doses, and the results will soon manifest themselves. We should not expect to engender in the breasts of old and frequent offenders the same horror and detestation of crime that we ourselves may have; but if we even can get them to forsake the paths of crime, we do a great deal. 'It is one thing to make a man turn his head, and another to make him see with our eyes.' I hope the day may yet come when an institution for the training of reformatory teachers will be established in Ireland. Such an institution must, sooner or later, be organized. The country requires it, and the number of the rising criminal generation of the empire proclaims its necessity and utility. The pedantic, mechanical, and mere rote teacher is totally unqualified for the post of prison school-master.

"I have dwelt too long, perhaps, on what may be considered irrelevant to this report; yet I cannot conclude without reminding those who hold appointments such as mine that—'Mankind are more what they are made by mankind than what they are made by their Creator. The wolf is ferocious because hunted from a whelp. The snake turns upon you because you disturb and pursue it. The child grows surly because unduly coerced. But, above all, man becomes unjust and cruel because pursued with cruelty and injustice by his brother man.'

"How far this truth should influence the conduct of the prison teachers is for themselves to decide.

"To men engaged at labour every day in the world outside, sitting down at its close to receive literary instruction is not a pleasant task, as my former long experience in the field of adult education has taught me to believe. But with my present pupils the case is quite different. Gladly do the Smithfield men approach the task, and cheerfully do they welcome the hour of its commencement. It may seem egotistic in me to say, that next to the hour which brings to them the glad tidings of their liberty, they

welcome, and with delight look forward to, that at which their literary labours commence each evening. To teachers and pupils the time set apart for literary instruction in Smithfield is welcome.

‘To business that we love we rise betime,
And go to it with delight.’

“The monitorial system is adopted in Smithfield, and who, it may be asked, are the monitors? They are those prisoners whose literary attainments are superior to the great majority of their comrades, and whose zeal to instruct their illiterate and untaught companions is most commendable. By this means a division of labour is effected, and the progress of the men accelerated to a very considerable extent. I have said a division of labour, I should have said a division of pleasure; for, in Smithfield, labour in every department is such. And why? Is it for the precarious emolument which they receive as compensation for their labour? Is it a desire to merit the approbation of the officers placed over them? Is it a wish to excel in quantity and quality of work their fellow-labourers? True it is that all these combined have a powerful effect, but they dwindle into comparative insignificance before the grand and all-powerful cause, Hope, whose star ever shines over them and cheers and encourages them onward in their labours. Hope is the mainspring of our machinery; it puts the hands and heads of our inmates to work, and excites us all to discharge our duties with fidelity and integrity; for men and officers feel an interest in the success of the institution—an interest which can be estimated only by those who see us at all times and in all our phases. With us, hope is the great support, the only beacon to liberty. In fine, it is by the benign influence of this ‘star of immortality,’ that the reformation of the juvenile or adult prisoner can be effected. Truly and with much wisdom has the poet said that Hope—

‘Sheds on afflicted minds the balm of comfort,
Relieves the load of poverty, sustains
The captive bending with the weight of bonds,
And smoothes the pillow of disease and pain.’

“I now, gentlemen, beg to direct your attention to another and perhaps one of the most important phases in the system of educational and moral training pursued in Smithfield. I allude to the lectures delivered by me to the men evening after evening. Subjoined is a list of the subjects upon which I lectured during the past year, and a copy of which by your directions is furnished each week to your office.

“LECTURES DELIVERED IN THE SMITHFIELD REFORMATORY INSTITUTION.

January to March.—“Self-Denial and Decision of Character. Canada and its Resources. Taxes. The Rivers, Lakes, and Mountains of the World. True Honesty. Conscientiousness respecting Discharge of Duty. The Employer and Employed. The Drainage of Europe. The Atmosphere. Truth. Contentment. The Precious Metals. Winter and its Blessings. Form of the Earth. Woods and Forests. Advantages of Self-government. Presence of Mind. Great Britain and her Colonies. Conscientiousness respecting the Property of others. Gratitude due by the men of Smithfield to the English Government. The Mysteries of the Deep. Temperance and the Cost of Drunkenness. The World of Plants. Conduct towards Superiors and Inferiors. Labour; its Claims and its Rewards. Who should emigrate. Truth. Conscientiousness as to Debt. Savings Banks and their Advantages. Pursuit of Knowledge under Difficulties. Curiosities of Physical Geography. Emigration the Road to Prosperity and Independence. The Way to Wealth. Temperance; its Blessings and its Rewards. Australia and her Gold Fields. Gratitude and Ingratitude. The Wisdom and Goodness of God displayed in His Works. The Human Heart. The Ocean. Conscientiousness as to

adhering to a Promise. The Precious Metals. Water. Honesty. The Use of Maps, and Geographical Terms, explained. Sincerity and Insincerity. Holyday. Envy; its Miseries and Antidotes. The Human Frame. Habit. Self-Service and Self-Dependence. Idleness and its Miseries. The Creation. Everything in Nature conducive to the Good of Mankind. Winter an Emblem of Life.

April to June.—"Modesty. Revenge, Miseries of. Contentment, Happiness of. Industry. Conscientiousness respecting the Reputation of others. Conscientiousness in adhering to a Promise. The Air we breathe. The Seasons. The Water we drink. Pauperism; its Causes and Remedies. Self-Examination, Importance of. The Motions of the Earth. Independence; how to attain it. Physical Features of the Continents. Forgiveness of Injuries. The Vegetable Kingdom, No. 1. Geographical Terms—Latitude and Longitude. The Adaptation and Distribution of Plants. Intemperance. The Crown of Labour. Geography; its Divisions. Size, Colour, and Pressure of the Ocean. Marine Vegetation. Physical Feature of the Continents. Waves and Currents, and their Causes. Intemperance and its Miseries. Our World in relation to the Universe. Nature a School for the Heart. The Poles, the Equator, and the Hemispheres. Causes and Effects of the Earth's Annual Motion. The Weight and Measurement of the Earth. Instability of Earthly Things. Temperance and its Blessings. Winds and Tempests. Canada and her Resources. Influence of the Sun on the Creation. Self-Examination of Conscience, Importance of. Emigration—New South Wales. Scandal, the Mischief of. Peculiarities of the Sea. Manures and Rotation of Crops. The Continents, their Size, and the Forces that raise them. Healthy Homes. Preparation of Land and Cultivation. Truth and Trust. Necessity and Use of Air. Magnificence of God displayed in the Creation.

July to September.—"Slander, Baseness of. Reformatory Address. Capital and Labour. Labour, its Rewards. Power and Wisdom of God displayed in the Ocean. Evening Hours; how to spend them. Temperance; its Blessings. The Ocean; its Colour, Pressure, and Saltness. Tides, Waves, and Currents. The Government of our Passions. Forni, Magnitude, and Motions of the Earth. Nourishment and Growth of Plants. Physical Features of the Old World. The Culture of Green Crops; the Turnip. Industry; its Rewards. Food. Disease and Longevity of Plants. Annual Motion of the Earth, and its Causes. Climates. Providence of God manifested in the Distribution of Vegetables. Self-Reliance and Self-Control. Emigration—New South Wales. The Soil we cultivate. The Measurement of the Earth. Diseases and Sleep of Plants. Temperance and its Blessings. British Colonies—Australia. Air. Falsehood and Slander. Rotation of Crops. Fidelity in the Discharge of Duty. Parsnips, Carrots, and Mangold Wurzel. Mr. Organ will read a Paper on Reformation of Prisoners. Conscientiousness respecting the Property of others. Formation of Snow and Ice. Rapidity with which Life passes away. Decision of Character. Conscientiousness as to Debt. Thunder and Thunder-storms. The Apparent Motions of the Heavens. Peculiarities in the Vegetable Kingdom. Creation. Culture of Corn Crops; Wheat. The Atmosphere. British Subjects and British Laws. Soils and their Treatment. Temperance and its Blessings. Industry and its Rewards. The Tides. Agricultural Implements and their Uses. Honesty, Contentment, and Happiness. Waves and Currents. The Seasons. Zones and Climates. Envy; its Misery and Antidote. Self-Service and Self-Dependence. Conscientiousness as to Fair Dealing. The Sun. Soil. Truth. Magnanimity. Latitudes and Longitudes. Man's Indifference to the Works of Nature. Australia; its Mines and Pasture Lands. The Growth of Trees. Forgiveness and Forbearance.

September to December.—"The Telegraph and its Uses. Frugality and Contentment. How to observe the Heavens. Emigration. The Creation. Life and Death. The Road to Wealth. Holyday. Reflections upon the Firmament. Sensibility of Plants. The Drunkard's Career. Self-Denial and Decision of Character. Tides and Currents. True Honesty. Winter and its Blessings. Presence of Mind. New South Wales; its Rise and Progress. Physical Geography of the Continents, Outlines of. Presence of Mind; its Advantages. Human Frame. Domestic Happiness. Retrospect of our Lives. Bank and Fireside. Man; his Happiness and Weakness. Self-Service and Self-Dependence. The Human Heart. English Navigation of the Eighteenth Century. Grateful Remembrance of Past Mercies. Conduct towards Superiors and Inferiors. Ocean Beds and Ocean Gardens. Industry and Frugality. Currents and Climates of the Sea. Heroism. Benevolence. Care of God for His Creatures. Distribution of Man. The Cost of Drunkenness. Emigration; Sydney, Past and Present. Biography; Lord Brougham and Demetz. Feeding and Management of Horses. The Seasons an Emblem of Human Life. Self-Control. The Atmosphere. Ocean Shells and their Inhabitants. The Colonies of Great Britain. Importance of Education to the Poor. Magnanimity. Endowment of God to Man. Philanthropists; Mrs. Caroline Chisholm. Decision of Character. Filial Affection. Self-Service and Self-Dependence. The Firmament. Benevolence. Strength of Men. Heroism. Competitive Examination. Conscientiousness in keeping a Promise. God seen in His Works. Station and Dress. Great Women; Mrs. Somerville and Mrs. Stowe. Aborigines of Australia. Slander; its Evils. The Bee; its Life and Labours. Frugality, paper written by Mr. Organ. Reflections upon Self. The Human Mind. Plants and Animals of Australia. Procrastination. Private Duties of Life. Habit. Sincerity and Insincerity.

Education ; the Kind most useful. Life, Infancy, Youth, and Manhood. War ; when Just and when Unjust. Hope ; its Influence on the Mind. Palestine, Remarkable Places in. Slander and Envy, written by Mr. Organ. The Independence of a Soldier's Life. Life ; its Maturity and Decline. Emigration ; the Qualifications requisite in an Emigrant to insure Success. Wise Sayings of Wise Men. Meditation on the Forthcoming Year. Old Age and Death, paper written by Mr. Organ. Instability of Earthly Things, written by Mr. Organ.

"It is worthy of notice that the lectures on emigration and moral subjects are listened to with the greatest attention by all, and received in a spirit which proves, or gives hope, that the hearts of the hearers are awakening from that torpidity into which in the old prison days they had fallen. There are, indeed, to be found educationists opposed to the system of lecturing, whose position and literary acquirements entitle them to respect and their opinions to weighty consideration.

"First awarding to these gentlemen that credit ever due to the expression of a heartfelt conviction and conscientious belief of any subject, at any hazard I respectfully beg to dissent from the opinions of these able and, no doubt, right-minded men. By lectures, properly selected of course, much can be done in the reformatory world. Some able and experienced educationists hold the same opinion. 'I quite concur,' writes the Rev. F. C. Cooke, one of her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools in England, 'with my colleague, the Rev. H. Moseley, in the remarks which he makes upon the importance of oral teaching, both as regards the effect upon the teachers and the benefits received by the students ; there can be no doubt that the most remarkable progress of knowledge and in mental development, has been effected by the substitution of lectures for a dry and wearisome course of textual reading.'

"This statement, gentlemen, coming from such a source, is surely entitled to some consideration, no matter how great the diversity of opinion may be as to the system of lecturing at present pursued in Smithfield and elsewhere.

"If the duty of a reformatory teacher be to win the confidence and affections of his pupils, to prepare the mental soil for the seeds of morality, to substitute in their hearts truth and sincerity for deceit and falsehood, frankness and openness of character for dissemblance and low cunning ; in fine, to prepare his pupils for the world outside, there to act their part as men ; if such be the duties of the prison teacher, I hold that he must have recourse to lectures. Of course his lectures should be delivered with simplicity and effect, and the subjects such as to meet the requirements of his hearers. Thus he may make them new men by giving them not mere school knowledge, but new ideas—matter upon which to ponder in the waking hours passed in their sleeping-rooms ; thus he may hope to draw them out of themselves, and to awaken in them a far higher and holier thing than the routine spirit of a good prisoner or a good overgrown schoolboy, namely, the active energetic reading spirit of a good man. To do this he must make them acquainted with God's works in creation, the simplicity of His laws must be explained to them, and His providence towards His creatures shown to them.

"Hence I tell them of the ocean and its mysteries, of the earth and the wisdom displayed in its structure, of the atmosphere and its uses, and of the firmament and its beauties. Industry and its rewards they are taught to appreciate ; vice, and its consequences they are exhorted to avoid ; the justice and the impartiality of the laws they are taught to admire and respect ; and in doing this I make no attempt at oratory. I speak to them

in language simple and sincere, and which I have ample reason to believe they understand and appreciate.

"Thus it is, gentlemen, that God is presented to them as the Author of the moral law, and the Ruler and the Creator of the universe. And thus it is they are made to see, feel, and know that not a flower—

'But shows some touch, in freckle, streak, or stain,
Of His unrivall'd pencil.'

"How, let me ask, is a knowledge of these things, poor of course, to be conveyed to the illiterate, but in many cases intelligent, prisoners; men who in many cases, know the why and wherefore of things better, perhaps, than the teacher himself; for it must be remembered that men can be educated though not versed in literary lore? Again, how is respect for superiors, obedience to the laws, gratitude for the acts of the good and the humane, and admiration of the wise and the great, to be engendered in hearts where crime and viciousness, hatred and revenge, long reigned triumphant? How I repeat, are men who from boyhood considered the English Government their oppressors, and the laws of the country partial and unjust, to be impressed with the erroneousness of such opinions and the folly and injustice of such prejudices, save by an exposition, suited to their intellect, of the laws which govern society in all its orders and classes? Again, how is the spirit of industry to be inculcated, and the reward of honest labour which awaits them in our colonies to be placed patently before them, and they be brought to hope that happy homes and cheerful firesides may succeed the frowning prison and the uncongenial cell, unless they be shown that self-reliance and industry can procure all that honest men of the class to which they should belong, but from which they had fallen, could hope for?

"Now, I would respectfully ask how can such an education, having for its end and aim the amelioration of the prisoner, and the good of the commonwealth, be imparted, save by lectures suitable to the capacities and wants of the humble and the lowly? But I fear that those opposed to the system of lectures are not fully acquainted with the nature of the lectures, nor the manner in which they are delivered. I further fear that their notion of a lecturer is rather elevated, and they forget to draw a line of demarcation between lectures *ex cathedra* and lectures of a simple conversational character. Possibly they cannot draw a distinction between the lecturer 'anxious to make a display of his own learning' and the lecturer whose simple and only object is to impart useful knowledge as familiarly as his tact will admit, to sow the seeds of morality, and cheer those whom he may know to be men anxious to preserve in the world that character which they have earned in prison, who prove their desire to obliterate the vices of the past by their well-doing in the future, and who evince this desire by an anxiety to improve their education, literary from the lecturer, moral and religious from the chaplain.

"Lectures, therefore, I hold, may be delivered, and are delivered, with advantage to prisoners. Procure fit and qualified men to deliver them, and they cannot fail to produce results gratifying and satisfactory. And it is with delight I perceive, gentlemen, that they are to be delivered by qualified and competent teachers under your Board, and that the time set apart for school business is to be the same in many of your prisons as that now appointed in Smithfield and at Lusk. The evening is the part of the day most suited for the purpose, especially with adults; and my experience

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leads me to believe, if evening education be properly carried out, that neither you, gentlemen, nor the prisoners either, will have cause to regret the change thus effected in prison management.

“Turning from my duties as a lecturer, I come to another feature in my office.

“Whilst attending to the educational wants of the prisoner, I endeavour to make myself acquainted with the history of the man. Individualization has always appeared to me one of the greatest and most important aids to success in the reformation of a criminal—I may add the greatest and sole aid. If you desire to reform the criminal, you must make yourself acquainted with his past history and future intentions. Therefore I learn the name of the prisoner, his place of birth, his age, the circumstances that led to his fall, the number and nature of his former convictions, and, above all, his natural character—in point of fact, his whole antecedent life; and these facts I desire to learn from himself, comparing them with the information contained in your official books.

“Acquainted with their antecedents, I converse with the men from time to time, and soon I learn from them their future intentions, and, the careers upon which they purpose to enter; all this time, of course, forming my own judgment as to the honesty or dishonesty of their protestations, the reasonableness or unreasonableness of their hopes.

“The importance of individualization of prisoners cannot be over-rated. To deal with them in the mass would be to commit a grievous error, and to act unjustly both towards the prisoners and the public. And here I deem it my duty, as a public servant, to observe that no matter how fully individualization may be carried out, the wisest observers will at times be deceived. Prisoners practise hypocrisy more or less from the moment they first cross the threshold of the gaol. I have always looked upon hypocrisy as the armour of the criminal; and I must confess that this armour has frequently bid defiance, notwithstanding all my efforts, to my humble powers of discrimination. However, I have from the first made it a practice to suspect the saintly prisoner, and doubt his plausible stories—

‘Trust not those cunning waters of his eyes,
For villany is not without such rheum;
And he long traded in it makes it seem
Like rivers of remorse and innocence.’

“This advice of the great master of the human heart has not been altogether forgotten by me whilst dealing with the men at Smithfield.

“It would be absurd in me to state that I was successful in all instances, nor do I for a moment mean to convey that I have been universally successful; but in the great majority of cases my efforts to arrive at the natural character of the prisoner have not been entirely useless.

“In my last Annual Report on Smithfield, when speaking of the importance of individualization, I wrote as follows:—‘I believe that if such men as ours are not individualized, all efforts at reformation, however earnestly made, must of necessity lose half their effects.’ Such was my opinion then; such, I may add, is my proved conviction now.

“I continue my weekly visits to the infirmary as usual, and there converse with the patients, and endeavour to cheer them, and lessen their pain, by hope—a medicine that seldom fails to sustain them in those times, when, unassociated with their fellows, and suffering from disease or pain, their unformed minds are apt to collapse in despair or helplessness.

"The results of the influence of hope, even on the minds of the inmates of the hospital, are apparent even to the casual visitor, and have been more than once acknowledged by our kind, humane, and skilful physician, Dr. Brady, whose name is ever mentioned with gratitude and respect by the prisoners.

"I have already stated that I endeavour to make myself acquainted with the antecedents of the men, for which purpose I keep a private note-book.

"In the 'observation' column is written my opinion of each man when about to be discharged; and should he continue in my district after leaving the prison, I, at certain intervals, compare my opinion of him as a free man with that which I held whilst he was a prisoner. Doubtless these opinions cannot be expected always to agree; but when I find that my power of discrimination between the good prisoner and the good man was at fault, I endeavour most strenuously to profit by the discrepancy in my future estimates of character and recommendation of men.

"Thus, day after day—in the workshop or in the field—at recreation or at work—at study or at voluntary employment—in the prison or in the world—on the bed of disease or in the enjoyment of health—I observe their ways, hear their tales, listen to their grievances, share their joys, and make myself acquainted with their hopes and fears—all of which they tell me without any attempt to conceal. By means of this identification with them, I endeavour to obtain an intimate knowledge of the men, and essay, at the same time, to turn such knowledge to their use and advantage, and likewise to the advantage of those who shall enter Smithfield in future.

"What a reformatory institution should be is a question now occupying the attention of many able men. That religion should form the basis of reformation cannot be questioned: take it away, and the formation of a new heart is utopian. A criminal devoid of it must necessarily be a bad subject for moral and industrial training. The difficulties attending the moral reformation of such a man, however, are better known to his chaplain, who is more competent to deal with them than the writer. I merely mention the all-powerful agent, religion, to acknowledge its influence and effect when brought to bear upon the heart, though that heart beat within the bosom of a ticket-of-leave man. Beautifully and wisely have the effects of religion been expressed by the able and good man who wrote—'Oh, the wonders it will accomplish! It wipes guilt from the conscience, rolls the world out of the heart, and darkness from the mind. It will brighten the most gloomy scene, smooth the most rugged path, and cheer the most despairing mind. It will put honey into the bitterest cup, and health into the most diseased soul. It will give hope to the heart, health to the face, oil to the head, light to the eye, strength to the hand, and swiftness to the foot. It will make life pleasant, labour sweet, and death triumphant. It gives faith to the fearful, courage to the timid, and strength to the weak. It robs the grave of its terrors, and death of its sting. It subdues sin, severs from self, makes faith strong, love active, hope lively, and zeal invincible. It gives sonship for slavery, robes for rags, makes the cross light, and reproach pleasant; it will transform a dungeon into a palace, and make the fires of martyrdom as refreshing as the cool breeze of summer. It snaps legal bonds, loosens the soul, clarifies the mind, purifies the affections, and often lifts the saint to the very gates of heaven. No man can deserve it, money cannot buy it, or good deeds procure it; grace reigns here.'"

No. CXVIII.—MILITARY PRISONS.

Report on the Discipline and Management of the Military Prisons.

By Colonel JEBB, C.B.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

THE military prisons in operation in 1857 were as follows:—In England; Chatham, Gosport, Weedon, Devonport, and Aldershatt. In Scotland; Greenlaw, near Edinburgh. In Ireland; Dublin, Cork, Limerick, and Athlone. Abroad; Gibraltar, Quebec, Halifax (Nova Scotia), Bermuda, Vido (Ionian Islands), St. Elmo (Malta), Mauritius, Barbadoes, and Montreal: making a total of 19 military prisons, of which 10 are in the United Kingdom, and 9 at different foreign stations; the whole being capable of accommodating about 1,500 prisoners.

The total number of prisoners admitted in 1857 was 5,572, constituting 5·62 per cent. of the force. The daily average number of prisoners in confinement throughout the year was 744, or 1·91 per cent. of the force. The average length of sentences was 49 days. There were 5 corporal punishments, of 200 lashes; 12 sentences to solitary confinement; and 3 to separate confinement. Of the 5,572 prisoners, 723 were under 20 years, 4,339 from 20 to 30 years, 488 from 30 to 40, and 22 above 40 years of age. As to country, 3,422 were English, 432 were Scotch, and 1,712 Irish. As to religion, 3,600 were Protestant, 338 Presbyterians, and 1,634 Roman Catholics. The number of men punished for minor offences has, in 1857, been smaller than in any previous year. The average length of sentences was also much reduced. In 1857, the average force was 76,360; and the number of desertions was 1,888, or 2·48 per cent. The number absent without leave, 1,734, or 2·27 per cent. The crimes were as follows:—Number charged with drunkenness, 619, or 0·82 per cent; number guilty of disgraceful conduct, 277, or 0·37 per cent.; guilty of other crimes, 1,038, or 1·37 per cent. The expenditure on account of military prisons, including the total charge for pay and allowances of prison officers, and for the subsistence and washing of the prisoners, amounted to 18,232*l*. The full pay and beer-money of prisoners in confinement not issued, amounted to 16,008*l*, thus reducing the expenses of military prisons at home to 2,224*l*.

Besides the number of prisoners in military prisons, there were, on an average, 122 prisoners, or 0·17 of the force, in barrack cells, including all, whether by sentence of regimental court-martial or by the award of commanding officers. So that the total average in military prisons and barrack-cells amounted to 866, or 11·3 per cent. The health of the prisoners has greatly improved since 1854. The proportion of the number treated for sickness to the total number in confinement in 1854, was nearly 21 per cent.; while, in 1855, it decreased to about 15 per cent.; in 1856, to 17 per cent.; and in 1857, to 16 per cent.

No. XCIV.—EDUCATION.

Minutes of the Committee of Council on Education, Correspondence, Financial Statements, and Reports of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools for 1857-58.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

On the 17th July, 1857, a Minute was passed, modifying the fourth condition for capitation grants, under Minute dated 2nd April, 1853; so that in future no fixed proportion of expenditure upon salaries to that upon other items should continue to be insisted upon.

On the 31st December, 1857, another Minute was made, withdrawing aid from reformatory schools out of education grants, except for the training of teachers, and setting forth conditions on which certified industrial and ragged schools may be aided. In order to obtain grants for ragged schools, the title of "ragged schools," or some other equivalent name of distinction, must be retained, both scholastic and industrial instruction must be given, and no fees must be received from any child attending the schools or any of the classes. Certified industrial and ragged schools may receive one-half of the rent of the premises in which industrial instruction is carried on; one-third of the cost of tools and of raw material for labour; five shillings per annum per industrial scholar; the ordinary rate for the purchase of books, maps, and apparatus; and the ordinary rate in augmentation of any certificated teacher's salary. For every child received under an order of the justices for their permanent detention, 5*l.*; and for every person boarded, lodged, and trained as a teacher, 40*l.*, provided the school contains at least forty inmates.

During the year ended 31st December, 1857, the expenditure from education grants amounted to 559,974*l.* 3*s.* 6½*d.*, showing an increase of 136,341*l.* 0*s.* 9*d.* over the expenditure of the previous year. The schools connected with the Church of England received 357,597*l.* 12*s.* 8½*d.*; the schools connected with the British and Foreign School Society received 50,021*l.* 19*s.* 2*d.*; the Wesleyan schools, 32,890*l.* 2*s.* 11½*d.*; the Roman Catholic schools, Great Britain, 25,894*l.* 7*s.* 7½*d.*; the parochial union schools for inspection and pupil teachers, 5,224*l.* 8*s.* 2*d.*; the Established Church of Scotland schools, 36,825*l.* 3½*d.*; the Free Church schools, 28,414*l.* 10*s.* 0½*d.*; and the Episcopal Church schools, 4,875*l.* 1*s.* 2*d.*; expenses of administration, &c., 18,231*l.* 1*s.* 5*d.* The total sums granted from 1839 to December 31, 1857, was 2,986,194*l.* 6*s.* 0½*d.* During 1857 there were built with aid from parliamentary grants 203 institutions or school-houses and 169 residences; and there were enlarged or improved, 239. The sum awarded was 117,771*l.* 9*s.* 6*d.*, and the amount subscribed by promoters 183,181*l.* 4*s.* 7½*d.*, making a total amount expended of 300,952*l.* 14*s.* 1½*d.*; accommodation has thereby been created for 47,321 children. On the 31st December there were actually employed in teaching 5,166 certificated teachers, viz., 3,206 males and 1,960 females; 244 assistant teachers, viz.,

198 males and 46 females; and 12,222 pupil teachers, viz., 6,773 males and 5,449 females.

The results of inspections were as follows:—During the year there were inspected, on account of annual grants, 4,369 schools, held in separate buildings, having 6,527 schoolrooms. The number of children present at examination was 633,750, viz., 351,970 boys and 281,780 girls. The average attendance was 574,387, and accommodation was provided for 871,993. The number of certificated teachers was 4,414, and of pupil teachers 10,943. The ages of the children on school registers were as follows:—In an average 6·15 per cent. were under 4; 7·36 per cent. between 4 and 5; 9·35 per cent. between 5 and 6; 11·76 per cent. between 6 and 7; 12·72 per cent. between 7 and 8; 12·26 per cent. between 8 and 9; 11·45 per cent. between 9 and 10; 10·28 per cent. between 10 and 11; 7·8 per cent. between 11 and 12; 5·71 per cent. between 12 and 13; 3·16 per cent. between 13 and 14; 2 per cent. over 14. Of these children, 42·89 per cent. had been in school less than one year; 22·42 per cent., one year; 14·91 per cent., two years; 9·47 per cent., three years; 5·68 per cent., four years; and 4·63 per cent., five years and over.

The annual income and expenditure as returned by the managers of an ascertained number of schools were as follows:—Income from endowment, 32,506*l.*; from voluntary contributions, 191,304*l.*; from school pence, 55,896*l.* 14*s.* 10*d.*: total, 476,306*l.* 4*s.* 9*d.*; average income per scholar in attendance, 16*s.* 10*d.* The expenditure was—salaries, 353,130*l.*; books and apparatus, 33,922*l.*; miscellaneous, 111,849*l.*: total, 498,901*l.*; average expenditure per scholar in attendance, 17*s.* 8½*d.* The average salaries of teachers was as follows:—Certificated masters' average pecuniary emoluments, including Government grants and all professional sources of income, 90*l.* 5*s.* 7½*d.* Of 2,728 masters, 1,544 were provided with houses or had house-rent free. The uncertificated masters had an average income of 62*l.* 14*s.* 3½*d.* The certificated mistresses had an average income of 61*l.* 2*s.* 3*d.*, and the uncertificated mistresses of 38*l.* 10*s.* 3½*d.* The certificated infant mistresses had an average income of 54*l.* 9*s.* 3*d.*, and the uncertificated of 32*l.* 16*s.* 5½*d.* In 3,689 schools, including 636,716 children, 37·29 per cent. were paying 1*d.* and less than 2*d.* per week; 38·14 per cent., 2*d.* and less than 3*d.*; 14·63 per cent., 3*d.* and less than 4*d.*; 6·58 per cent., 4*d.*; and 3·36 per cent. over 4*d.*

The Rev. J. C. Cook, M.A., reported on the Church of England schools inspected in the county of Middlesex. In this district there were 726 pupil teachers under 237 certificated masters or mistresses. The number of children instructed by them did not amount to 35,000. The proportion of pupil teachers was, therefore, about 1 for 47 children; of certificated teachers, 1 to 147. The inspector reported most favourably of the pupil teachers, and of the character of the instruction given.

The Rev. G. C. Fussell reported on the schools in the same district. One of the difficulties connected with the schools in great cities is, that the

children are perpetually changing. Twelve or fifteen months is commonly the limit of their continuance in any one school. Many causes conduce to this :—1st, the migratory habits of their parents, who are often compelled to shift their places of residence in search of employment; 2nd, straitened circumstances brought about by the fluctuations of the labour market; 3rd, individual caprice and readiness to take offence at the enforcement of proper discipline; and 4th, a rational preference of one school to another. To the extension of industrial instruction there are great difficulties. To train boys to handicraft or girls to domestic occupation by mere theoretical instruction without practical teaching is a simple impossibility. Much useful information may be imparted, but that is all that can be done. There are already some schools of an industrial character connected with the parochial schools. New cookery schools have also been established.

The Rev. H. W. Bellairs reported on the Church of England schools inspected in the counties of Gloucester, Oxford, Warwick, Worcester, Hereford, and Monmouth. The inspector compared the state of elementary education in these districts in 1844 with their present condition, and showed the immense improvement effected. He alluded to the recent movement in favour of middle-class education in connection with the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, which originated with the Birmingham Educational Association. Such movement will be advantageous to the operations of the Committee of Council on Education, as it will relieve it from a pressure, which was daily becoming greater, for the Committee to undertake the improvement of middle-class schools.

The Rev. F. Watkins, B.D., reported on the Church of England schools inspected in the county of York. The great educational evil reported upon is the small age of school-children. All that the parents require seems to be a minimum of attainments, and the sooner they obtain that, the children are withdrawn from school; so that the better the school is, the shorter is their stay. Complaints were made of the morals of the pupil teachers, and several cases were reported of pupil teachers dismissed from their situation for "immorality," and in two or three instances for "gross immorality." Money prizes in schools had become quite common.

The Rev. E. Douglas Tinling reported on the Church of England schools inspected in the counties of Somerset, Dorset, Devon, and Cornwall. The state of education in this district was advancing materially. Much progress had been made in school premises, and the attendance was greater than in previous years; but the unceasing change of teachers had been very injurious to the schools, to the apprenticed pupil-teachers, and to the teachers themselves.

The Rev. M. Mitchell, M.A., reported on the Church of England schools inspected in the counties of Norfolk, Suffolk, and Essex. He referred to the ventilation and lighting of the schools. Ventilation should be gained from the upper portions of windows, not the middle or lower. Though as a whole the state of the schools was good, there were many cases of

inefficiency. The causes of this are the circumstances of the parish, the poverty of the population, the illiterate condition of all its classes, the consequent indifference of the parents, the want of sympathy between the various classes, the absence of an upper class, the indifference of the wealthier or chief inhabitants, sometimes their entire and positive opposition, the want of some leading person to direct attention to the subject, and, mainly from all these several causes, the deficiency of funds. In answer to the suggestion that the schools fail in promoting practical education, Mr. Mitchell stated:—

“The real use of schools for the working classes is simply this, that the children are therein trained in habits of cleanliness, obedience, attention, order, propriety of conduct, and general docility of demeanour; to respect themselves and others while so doing. They also are instructed (I speak of Church schools, having no acquaintance with others) in all the rudiments of religion, and their conduct, therefore, is based (if the school do its duty) on higher than mere worldly motives. In addition to this, they are taught reading, writing, and arithmetic, and they possess a slight elementary knowledge of grammar, history, and geography. The girls, also, will work and sew well. Whoever looks for more than this, in an ordinary working-class school, will most probably be disappointed. I speak thus openly, for much of the discredit commonly attributed to the education given in our schools arises from misconceptions of what can be done, of what also ought to be attempted. People expect finished workmen, while the school can only prepare for the apprenticeship. The chief complaint is as to the inefficiency of girls when they leave our schools. I believe that there never was, and never will be, a time when the inefficiency of youth to perform untaught duties was not to be complained of. People want the school to send out a servant. But it takes some years to make a perfect servant; there is no opportunity to make one in a school. The labourer's child is unacquainted with the articles of furniture, the kitchen apparatus, the domestic civilization and habits, of the upper class. Her brothers and sisters have fed on a more Spartan broth than their children; and her clothes are made in a different fashion, and worn in another mode. The brick floor of the cottage, and its scanty grate and inefficient firing, possess little in common with the comfortable carpets and magnificent kitchen-ranges of the wealthier classes.

“But, if you take a girl out of a village school, you must expect that you will have to teach her. You must expect that she will make mistakes; you must not be amazed if she is sometimes giddy and misconducted (youth of all classes, unfortunately, are often so); and you must not be surprised if she is ignorant of many matters with which you are familiar, since she has never had the opportunity of learning them. The manager of a village school can hope only to present to you a girl of general good conduct, with general propriety of demeanour, a certain willingness to learn, and an increased power of application (derived from her schooling), so as to learn quickly how to accommodate herself to the new situation to which she has been called. And such girls, I confidently believe, our schools do most frequently turn out; if only they have been well taught by intelligent teachers and well superintended by sympathising, yet not too exacting, managers.”

The Rev. J. J. Blandford, B.A., reported on the Church of England schools inspected in the counties of Northampton, Rutland, Lincoln, Nottingham, Leicester, and Derby. The state of education in these districts was not satisfactory, though the schools in most districts were in a tolerably working order. In Nottingham and its neighbourhood the want of schools was very serious.

The Rev. W. H. Brookfield reported on the Church of England schools inspected in the counties of Sussex and Kent, and in the Channel Islands. The inspector commented on the method of teaching there pursued. In the number and ability of certificated teachers, and in their success with ordinary scholars or apprentices, this district is not surpassed by any which might challenge competition with it. But while its relative merits in educational respects secure it from disadvantageous contrast, its absolute achievements appeared, to the inspector's judgment, to fall considerably short of what a few years ago might fairly have been anticipated. The schools do not appear to make much advance.

The Rev. W. J. Kennedy reported on the Church of England schools inspected in the county of Lancaster and in the Isle of Man. He referred to the great movement made in the matter of evening schools, by the formation of an important union of mechanics' and other institutions in East Lancashire. He suggested some relaxation in the capitation fees, in so far as they are subject to the condition of payments by the children.

The Rev. J. P. Norris reported on the Church of England schools inspected in the counties of Chester, Salop, and Stafford. The inspector divided his remarks under the following heads:—1. The lessons taught in our schools. 2. Subsidiary means of making schools attractive. 3. Half-time schemes in evening schools. And, 5. Secondary schools in connection with primary schools.

Upon the first of these heads, Mr. Norris observed:—

“If the purpose of education be to make the most of a child,—if, in order to make the most of a child, we must teach him to double the talent that God has given,—if that talent be not the same for all, but for some muscular strength, for others skill, for others intellect,—then it would seem to be a most unwise thing to aim chiefly at intellectual culture for all children. A wiser course would be, to let our education be of three kinds, adapted severally to the three groups of children with which we have to do. For those whose lot will be unskilled labour in after-life, physical training in the way of industrial work would seem to be of paramount importance. For those who are to be skilled workmen or artisans, cultivation of skill ought to receive prominent attention. While for those who will have to work chiefly with the brain, intellectual culture rightly occupies the first place.

“Now, to a considerable extent, certainly up to ten years of age, and in some measure afterwards, all these three branches of education should be pursued together. Some physical training is necessary in all schools, for the sake of health; skill in some of the common arts of life (such as penmanship or needlework) is likewise necessary; and, to a certain extent, intellectual culture is indispensable for all children, to give them a rational

understanding of their duty. A scheme of education that entirely omitted any one of the three ought to be considered imperfect. The only question is about their relative importance for different classes of children.

"After the tenth or eleventh year, the child begins to form habits and acquire notions which are likely to cling to him in after-life; and I would ask whether we are doing wisely in accustoming those who will have to get their living by manual labour to go on, up to their thirteenth or fourteenth year, with the notion that their main business is intellectual culture. Hitherto intellectual culture has monopolized our chief attention in nearly all schools. I want to see this monopoly destroyed. The really important thing in education is the formation of a virtuous and religious character; and this may be carried on in an industrial school just as well as in a school of purely intellectual instruction.

"If I were organizing a primary school, I would endeavour to give a practical interpretation to these notions in the following way:—For the younger classes, I should desire to make no change in the present system. For children above ten or eleven years of age, I should wish the first hour of the day to be given to moral and religious instruction. Three or four of the best hours of the day should then be given to industrial work; needlework and housewifery for the girls, and spade husbandry or some more skilled labour for the boys, according to the locality. And to ensure this industrial work being a real business, and not a plaything, I would have it in some sort a commercial adventure on the part of the teacher, and carried on so as to be remunerative to the elder children, as well as to himself. The remaining hour or two of the day should be given to book-work, which would thus come to occupy the same position at school that we wish it to occupy in after-life,—a recreation after toil. If this were so, I am inclined to think that we should hear less than we do now of books being entirely laid aside when children leave school. For the few elder boys who in each school might be marked out either by their parents' wish or by their liveliness of parts, for head-work in after-life, I would have a select class of higher instruction carried on while the rest were at their industrial work. In the subsequent part of my report, when I come to speak of half-time schemes and secondary schools, I shall have some further suggestions to offer on this subject."

Upon the second head, viz., the subsidiary means of making our schools attractive, Mr. Norris made the following suggestions:—

"1. To have regard to the future trade or calling of a boy in giving him his lessons; and, with this view, to introduce a few extra lessons on book-keeping, machine drawing, mensuration, commercial correspondence, or the like, in the first class, or as home tasks. 2. To stimulate the boys by periodical examinations, classification according to a scheme of marks, and certain privileges in the upper part of the school. 3. To attach them to the school by cricket-clubs, bands of music, Saturday excursions, allotment gardens, flower and vegetable shows, &c. 4. To engage the interest of the parents by an occasional address at a tea-party or school-concert, by tracts or lectures on education, by constant visiting, and periodical reports of the progress of individual children. 5. To institute penny banks, clothing clubs, lending libraries, &c. in connection with the school."

The Rev. D. J. Stewart, M.A., reported on the Church of England

schools inspected in the counties of Hertford, Buckingham, Bedford, Cambridge, and Huntingdon. There are but four schools receiving parliamentary grants in these counties.

The Rev. W. Warburton reported on the Church of England schools inspected in the counties of Berks, Hants, and Wilts, and the Isle of Wight.

The Rev. G. R. Moncrieff reported on the Church of England schools inspected in the counties of Northumberland, Cumberland, Durham, and Westmoreland. Referring to the general source of complaint, viz., the early withdrawal of children from school, and their irregular attendance while there, the inspector showed from the results of several schools in towns and country districts, that the sole law of variation is the demand for labour. In the country, children's labour is in comparatively small demand; nearly half the year at least is free from it; and with country distances to travel, mere infants are not so universally sent to school. Therefore in the country the percentages are high. But in towns, and among industrial populations of every kind, the best schools in the district are beaten down, by the absorption of children into remunerative employments, to a lower standard of age than the mass of inferior schools.

The comparative results are these:—The best agricultural and town schools do not lose their scholars quite so largely before ten years of age as the mass of inferior schools. The best in industrial places are in this respect on a level with the mass. The loss between ten and twelve is nearly equal in the best schools in towns or industrial places, and in the mass of all kinds; the best agricultural schools keep a much larger proportion. The loss between twelve and fourteen is greatest in towns, least in the mass of the very worst schools, and less in the country than in industrial places or annual-grant schools generally. It is impossible to reconcile these facts with the idea that the early withdrawal has any connection with the defects in existing schools. Tried by this theory, they are capricious, conflicting, unintelligible. But the moment we recognize the labour market as the one dominant influence, all is clear and consistent. Where the demand for juvenile labour is great, the percentage of older children is small, and *vice versa*.

The ordinary course seems to be as follows:—A boy in a good country school will generally attend, off and on, till ten, very probably till twelve, and sometimes till fourteen. Out of a class of nine at ten years of age we may find six two years after, and two after a second two years. In a good town school he may not improbably leave before ten; it is an even chance whether he does or does not leave soon after ten, and almost certain that he will leave about thirteen. In a good school in a seaport, or mining or manufacturing place, he is still more likely to leave before ten; if he reaches ten, it is still an even chance whether he reaches twelve; but if he stays so long, there is rather more likelihood of his remaining for another year or two. In an ordinary "fair" school the chances at each stage are very nearly the same as these last. In an inferior school, his chance of

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remaining from ten till twelve, and from twelve till fourteen, is decidedly the best of any.

The Rev. H. Longueville Jones reported on the Church of England schools inspected in Wales. The inspector reported a great want of a good supply of teachers. There is much repugnance to the profession of a teacher, probably because no public provision is made for them—no pensions are to be looked for. The Church-school system had proved very successful; Dissenters, of all denominations, combining with the clergy in the education of their children. In the 168 schools under inspection there were 6,130 children belonging to parents of the Church of England, 2,144 Wesleyan Methodists, 3,261 Calvinistic Methodists, 2,693 Independents, 1,775 Baptists, 76 Unitarians, 56 Mormons, and 2,333 not ascertained.

Mr. J. R. Morrell reported on the British schools, and on the Wesleyan and other denominational schools. Mr. Morrell, in his report, referred to the relation of the fortunes of every country to the mental enlightenment and moral energies of the people, and to the want of a sound popular education as the principal means for cultivating intelligence and virtue in the country. Special evils arise from want of education, such as improvidence, inability to calculate, misapprehension of social relations, and love of sensual enjoyments. These are the results of a want of education. The first great requisites for every country is that the means of mental enlightenment and moral training should be placed, upon easy conditions, in the hands of every individual in the community; the second is, that professional training should likewise be provided on similar terms to all, whatever their position may be in the social scale. Hence the need of free schools for the poorest and most needy, of commercial or professional schools for the larger towns, of high schools in which a complete classical and scientific training should be afforded, and of national universities open to all without religious distinctions.

Mr. Matthew Arnold, Mr. Joseph Bowstead, Mr. J. S. Laurie, Mr. William Scottock, and Mr. C. H. Alderson, reported on the British schools, and the Wesleyan and other denominational schools. The Prize Scheme Association in Wales has been eminently successful in its endeavours. Mr. Laurie detailed the working of the *simultaneous* system now introduced. This system consists in treating the class as a unit; it ignores to a great measure the individual scholar; it teaches reading simultaneously; and demands that the answers to questions shall be given in one simultaneous shout. It proves, therefore, to be a mechanical artifice for securing unusual activity by insisting on a universal *demonstration* of activity. The inspector objected to the system because deceptive and injurious. Soldiers are drilled in masses because they must act in masses: not so with pupils. The object of the teacher who practises the individual method is to present food for every variety of mind, suited to every capacity, without overstraining any, and to cultivate by exercise every varied power of human nature.

Mr. T. W. M. Marshall reported on the Roman Catholic schools in the southern division of Great Britain. Sixty schools are already receiving public grants in London and the immediate neighbourhood, and many more are in progress. There are, moreover, 7 reformatories aided by the State, having collectively 560 inmates. Amongst these the largest is the Mount St. Bernard's Agricultural Colony in Charnwood Forest. This reformatory, conducted by a member of a Roman Catholic order, contains in itself all the means which may be conducive to the thorough reformation of juvenile offenders. There are attached to it, smiths', joiners', tailors', and shoemakers' shops, stables, barns, and stackyards; so that, in addition to learning the art of husbandry, the boys during their five years' residence there may get sufficiently initiated into any one of those trades, and so when discharged can earn an honest livelihood. The Arno's Court, another such institution, is under the charge of a community of ladies, known as *Sisters of the Good Shepherd*. In this institution all classes are admitted, even the worst cases.

Mr. Scott Nasmyth Stokes, barrister-at-law, reported on the Roman Catholic schools in the north-western division of England and Wales. Notwithstanding some objection, the managers of Roman Catholic schools are willing to co-operate with the Committee of Council on Education, and accept the grants. Mr. Stokes, as well as Mr. Marshall, recommended an increase of salary of certificated Roman Catholic schoolmasters, whose remuneration now averages only 69*l.* 17*s.* 4*d.* per annum.

Mr. J. Reynell Morell reported on the Roman Catholic schools in the north-eastern division of Great Britain. He was deeply impressed with the extreme poverty of a large part of the children inspected by him in Scotland, and with the general superiority of the girls' and infant schools over the boys' schools, a fact to be attributed to the superiority of the ladies in charge of many of the former departments. The factory children appeared to him exposed to a compulsory attendance in Protestant half-time schools belonging to Protestant mill-owners. Much benefit would be conferred by the extension of the capitation grants to Scotch Roman Catholics.

Dr. E. Woodford, LL.D., reported on the schools connected with the Established Church in the Midland division of Scotland; Mr. John Gordon on those in the south-west of Scotland; and Dr. Cumming made a general report on the same. Upon the general progress of education in Scotland, Dr. Cumming said—

“There is much reason, after taking a retrospect of the last seven years, to congratulate the country and those who have been engaged in promoting the work of education. Not only is the number of qualified teachers increased greatly, even in proportion to the increased number of schools, and the teaching power generally augmented and improved, but, by grants of books and maps, and of money in aid of the enlargement and refitting of the schools, these schools themselves have become better adapted for the purposes for which they were erected. Assuming that a similar improvement has taken place in the districts under the inspection of my colleagues,

I may safely say that a greater impulse has been given to the cause of education in Scotland during the last ten or twelve years than at any period since the establishment of the parish school system; and in some respects the present mode of administration works more advantageously for the community than that justly celebrated system has done. I need only refer to two points. In the first place, security is taken that the teachers shall be acquainted with the practice of their profession, as well as with the subjects which they are required to teach. The election of the parish schoolmaster by the heritors and minister is unlimited in its range by any consideration of the previous employment or pursuits of the individual to be chosen; and, though his qualifications are tried by the presbytery, the trial extends only to his knowledge, and not to his aptitude to teach; and, even in regard to his knowledge, the question, I believe, is still unsettled—whether the presbytery is entitled to extend its examination beyond the branches which the heritors think necessary to be taught in the particular school. That many qualified men were appointed in these circumstances is readily acknowledged; but that others were appointed of very indifferent qualifications can scarcely be denied by those who are aware of the facts. The terms on which your Lordships' certificates of merit are awarded, and on which the augmentations continue to be paid, afford an assurance that the teacher shall not be very deficient in respect of the attainments which he ought to possess. Secondly, in those cases of moral delinquency which are sure to occur from time to time in all large bodies of men, and which render it necessary for the public good that the office should become vacant, the process is now shorter and more decisive than it was under the older system. It is well known that individuals of notoriously bad character have been allowed to remain in parish schools, in consequence of the reluctance of parties to incur the expense and (in some cases it may be added) the odium of a prosecution. Where such cases have occurred under the operation of the Minutes of Council, and I am sorry to say that one or two cases have occurred in my knowledge, the simple refusal to fill up the necessary certificates in order to secure both the voluntary contributions and the augmentation has been sufficient to secure the removal of the delinquent; and I may add, with regard to cases which call for pity as well as censure, the removal has been effected without a ruinous exposure. I should certainly regret if in this way the teacher were made to suffer from the caprice or ill-feeling of those with whom he had to do. No doubt the power exercised by the managers is great; but I cannot say that I have found it injuriously employed, nor do I think that there is much risk of its being so. It seems probable, though of course I cannot speak officially on the subject, that the influence of the proceedings of the Committee of Council (as well as the more partial but more direct influence of the Dick bequest) has tended to the improvement of those schools which are not immediately under their control. When one reflects on these improvements, no doubt it is mortifying to think that, with greater advantages than were ever before enjoyed for the attainment of education, there should exist so much indifference on the part of parents in regard to the securing of its benefits for their children. But it may, perhaps, be observed that the operation of particular influences on the national character is most discoverable, not in the generation in which they are at work, but in that which immediately follows it. The existence of the indifference alluded to is not certainly to be traced to the efforts which have been made to promote

education, but rather to those previous circumstances which made the efforts necessary; and, whatever means be adopted for overcoming this indifference in the meantime, it may be reasonably hoped that, when education has been generally diffused by such measures as are now employed, and when its advantages are seen and felt in the life and history of those who are now acquiring its benefits, the shame of being uneducated will revive, as it is said to have formerly existed among the poorest classes in Scotland."

The Rev. Thomas Wilkinson reported on the Episcopal Church schools in Scotland.

The Rev. J. Temple, M.A., reported on the Church of England Training Colleges for Schoolmasters. The total number of students in residence was 765. Of these, 13 were in the third year, 227 in the second year, and 440 in the first year. There were also 85 probationers. The officers employed as lecturers were 95 in number. The total income was 37,490*l.*, of which 13,815*l.* was paid by the subscribers, 20,614*l.* was derived from grants, and 3,041*l.* was paid by the students themselves or their friends. The Rev. J. C. Cook reported on the Church of England Training Colleges for Schoolmistresses. Mr. Joseph Bowstead reported on the Training Institution of the British and Foreign School Society in the Borough Road, Southwark; Mr. Morell, on the Wesleyan Training College; Mr. Marshall, on Roman Catholic Training Colleges for Schoolmasters at Hammersmith and for Schoolmistresses at St. Leonard's-on-Sea; Mr. Stokes, on the Roman Catholic Training College for Schoolmistresses at Liverpool; Mr. Gordon, on the Church of Scotland College for Schoolmasters and Schoolmistresses at Glasgow; and the Rev. Dr. Joseph Woolley on Royal Dockyard Schools, Royal Marine Schools, and other Naval Schools under the Board of Admiralty at Chatham, Deptford, Devonport, Pembroke, Portsmouth, Sheerness, and Woolwich.

No. XCV.—KENSINGTON GORE ESTATE.

Return of all Sums expended in the Purchase of the Estate at Kensington Gore, in laying out, and draining, and forming the Roads on the same, and all other Objects connected therewith; and of all Sums expended in building the Museum, in removing the Collections and arranging them therein; distinguishing the several Votes of the House under which such Expenditure has been incurred. (Mr. Mowbray.) 12th February, 1858. (112.)

THE sum paid for the purchase of the estate was 259,136*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.*; for laying out grounds, draining, and making roads, 15,692*l.* 7*s.* 5*d.* Of this sum, 97,328*l.* 19*s.* 11*d.* was expended out of surplus funds in the hands of the Royal Commissioners; and 177,500*l.* was voted by Parliament. In addition to this, however, other sums will have to be paid to complete the purchase of the estate out of moneys in the hands of the Commissioners for the Exhibition of 1851, among which is the sum of 54,716*l.*, less the deposit of 6,000*l.* Three per Cent. Consols to be paid to Lord Harrington, upon

completion of the purchase of the Harrington estate. The cost of building the Museum was 15,000*l.*; outlays upon Museum buildings, fittings, &c., 4,960*l.* 3*s.* 7*d.*; cost of forming collection of animal products, &c., 3,835*l.* 9*s.* 2*d.*; making a total of 298,624*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.*, of which 192,500*l.* were voted by Parliament, and 106,124*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.* were expended out of the surplus fund.

No. XCVI.—ECCLESIASTICAL COMMISSIONERS.

Tenth General Report from the Ecclesiastical Commissioners for England, for the Year ended 30th October, 1857.

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.*]

ARRANGEMENTS have been concluded for transferring to the Commissioners certain estates belonging to the bishoprics of Gloucester, and Bristol, and Ripon, in consideration of money payments to the respective bishops, and for relieving the bishop of the former see from one of the houses of residence belonging thereto. A scheme has been passed for regulating the incomes of the dean and canons of the cathedral church of Canterbury. The archdeaconry of Llandaff has been endowed by the annexation thereto of a canonry in the cathedral church of Llandaff, and a prospective arrangement of a similar character has been effected with regard to the archdeaconry of Monmouth. Provision has also been made for securing to the archdeacon of Llandaff in respect of his canonry, and to every future canon residentiary of the cathedral church of Llandaff, the amount of income contemplated by the Acts. A temporary grant has been made from the common fund in augmentation of the income of the archdeaconry of Huntingdon.

Assignments have been made of the patronage of the new parishes of Mount Pleasant, in the county of Cumberland, and of Saint James Hatcham, in the counties of Kent and Surrey, in consideration of benefactions in augmentation of the respective cures.

The Commissioners have taken the necessary measures for carrying into effect an exchange of the patronage of the perpetual curacy of St. Paul, Buttershaw, in the county of York, for the patronage of the perpetual curacy of St. Michael and All Angels, Shelf, in the same county, and for securing to the latter benefice the advantage of a benefaction in augmentation of its endowment.

The Commissioners, in dealing with the estates vested in them, continue to have regard to the principles laid down by the Committee of the House of Lords in 1851, as modified by the suggestions in the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons in 1856. In their eighth report they referred to the progress of enfranchisement in the counties of Cumberland and York, notwithstanding that their terms were at first less favourably received in the north of England, and they have now the satisfaction of stating that a considerable number of agreements have been made during the past year relating to property in the county of Durham.

A sum of stock equivalent to 100,000*l.* cash has, in the course of the year, been transferred to the Commissioners by the Church Estates Commissioners, in respect of the surplus arising from transactions under the provisions of the Episcopal and Capitular Estates Management Act. The aggregate amount paid over to the common fund on this account is now 500,000*l.*

In their last report, the Commissioners stated it to be their intention to appropriate, on the conditions therein set forth, a capital sum of 5,000*l.* towards making better provision for the cure of souls. To obtain grants out of this sum, benefactions to the value of 7,000*l.* have been offered and accepted, and many other offers have been necessarily postponed until the Commissioners shall be in possession of the means of meeting them. In the present year, the Commissioners are prepared to appropriate a further sum of 18,000*l.* on the same conditions, and they have reason to expect that a proportionate amount of benefactions may be obtained.

The total number of benefices permanently augmented by the Commissioners, exclusive of new districts, mentioned below, amounted on the 1st of November last to 882, with an aggregate population of 2,392,326, and the annual grants made by the Commissioners in respect of those benefices, exclusive of the value of land and tithe rent-charge annexed in certain cases, now amounts to the sum of 46,833*l.*

Since the last report, five districts have been constituted under the New Parishes Act. In three of these cases the whole of the endowment was provided from private sources; in the fourth, the Commissioners contributed a portion of the endowment, in consideration of a special claim upon property which had become vested in them; and in the fifth, the income of the incumbent will be derived from pew-rents, a temporary provision having been made for his support, until a church shall have been built and consecrated.

The total number of districts constituted by the Commissioners under the New Parishes Act up to the 1st of November last, amounted to 254; and their aggregate population to 875,941. In three districts, constituted prior to the provision of churches therein, churches have; during the period of the past year, been approved and consecrated, and the districts have thus become new parishes, and the incumbents thereof respectively entitled to an annual income of not less than 150*l.*, besides surplice fees and dues arising within their respective parishes. The annual payment by the Commissioners in respect of districts and new parishes is now increased to 35,137*l.*, and is subject to further increase from time to time as new churches are consecrated.

The total permanent charge upon the common fund for augmentation and endowment of parochial cures amounts at present to the sum of 81,970*l.* per annum, exclusive of the 18,000*l.* per annum payable to the Governors of Queen Anne's Bounty, under the arrangement for the endowment of additional cures alluded to in the sixth report.

In exercise of the functions which have devolved upon them by the transfer of the duties, powers, and authorities formerly exercised by "Her Majesty's Commissioners for building new Churches," the Commissioners have made the following arrangements, viz. :—

The assignment of district chapelries to four churches; the declaration of the patronage of three churches; the substitution of a new church for the ancient parish church in two cases; the fixing a scale of pew-rents for four churches; the acceptance of 81 conveyances of sites for churches, burial-grounds, and parsonage houses.

The annual income and expenditure of the common fund was as follows: The total income by capitular revenues, by rental of estates, by dividends and interest, amounted to 145,000*l.* 11*s.* 10*d.*; and the payments, including livings augmented, 126,641*l.* 14*s.* 2*d.*; leaving a surplus of 18,358*l.* 17*s.* 8*d.* The general account showed a balance on hand of 105,809*l.* 10*s.* 8*d.* in Government securities, and 495,816*l.* 13*s.* 3*d.* in cash.

No. XCVII.—ECCLESIASTICAL COMMISSIONERS (IRELAND).

Report of the Ecclesiastical Commissioners for Ireland, for the Year ending 1st of August, 1858.

[*Pursuant to Act 3 & 4 Will. IV. c. 37, s. 10.*]

THE sum appropriated at the usual special meeting of the Board, in December last, for the several church works of this year, amounted to 43,764*l.* 10*s.* 3*d.*; of this sum 7,608*l.* 18*s.* 1*d.* has been applied towards the completion of 13 new churches, and the enlargement of 4 churches for which grants had been made in former years; 8,690*l.* towards the building or rebuilding of 11 parish churches, and the enlargement of 16; and the residue, amounting to 27,465*l.* 12*s.* 2*d.*, was set apart for the repairs of churches, and for the fencing of churchyards, including the expenses connected with the carrying out of these several works.

The Commissioners have been enabled this year to appropriate a larger sum to the building, enlarging, and repairing of churches than was expected, owing to the receipt of a sum exceeding 7,000*l.*, under the head of fines for the renewal of leases in cases in which the tenants had suffered very many years to elapse without availing themselves of their privilege to renew at shorter intervals. And this application of the funds of the Board has been liberally responded to by the respective congregations in the aid afforded by them in the extension of church accommodation, the sum received this year from private sources being 8,787*l.* 10*s.* 8*d.*, which is for the most part applicable to the building and enlargement of churches.

Owing to the state of their funds, the Commissioners have been enabled this year to augment the income of but one benefice, namely, that of Kilshane, in the diocese of Cashel, by a grant of 20*l.* per annum, being an

unappropriated sum to the credit of Primate Boulter's Fund. The number of applications before the Board for the augmentation of small livings, even where the incomes of the clergy do not amount to 100*l.* per annum, was still very considerable. In the proposed bill for the amendment of the Church Temporalities Act, a clause has been suggested, which would have the effect of enabling the Commissioners, on some future increase of their income, to set apart a portion of their general fund for the augmentation of small livings, there being little or no prospect, particularly since the annual loss to their funds of 12,000*l.* by the abolition of ministers' money, that, after making full provision for the objects referred to, there would be any surplus for the augmentation of small livings, as contemplated by that Act.

In furtherance of this object, the Commissioners have also suggested an amendment of the law in respect to the expenses now primarily chargeable on their funds for the building and rebuilding of churches, by including in the proposed bill a clause to enable them to aid in the establishment of licensed houses of worship in parishes or districts which contain but few members of the Established Church, instead of their being obliged to incur the greater expense of erecting churches in such places.

Thirty-seven applications for the purchase of perpetuities have been received. The sum realized from this source within the year has amounted to 6,653*l.* 4*s.* 7*d.*, and a mortgage has been granted for securing the payment of a further sum of 1,696*l.* 0*s.* 10*d.*, pursuant to the provisions of the 155th section of the 3 & 4 Will. IV. c. 37.

A sum of 6,582*l.* 16*s.* 1*d.* has been invested in Government securities to the credit of the Perpetuity Purchase Fund; also a sum of 2,667*l.* to the credit of Primate Boulter's Fund. A temporary investment to the amount of 13,000*l.* has been likewise made in the same securities, to the credit of the general fund, pending the fulfilment of engagements which have been entered into for the building and repairing of churches.

The receipts and disbursements of the Ecclesiastical Commissioners were as follows:—Income: Balance in the Bank of Ireland, 10,441*l.* 14*s.*; private subscriptions for rebuilding, enlarging, and altering churches, 8,792*l.* 2*s.* 2*d.*; income from see estates, suspended dignities, benefices, &c., 111,505*l.* 1*s.* 7*d.*; from sale of Government stock, 11,126*l.* 1*s.* 7*d.*: total, 141,864*l.* 19*s.* 4*d.* The disbursements were as follows:—Payments for rebuilding and enlarging churches, 47,572*l.* 19*s.* 1*d.*; requisites for celebration of Divine service, clerks, &c., 35,460*l.* 14*s.* 10*d.*; stipends to curates, 8,171*l.* 10*s.* 4*d.*: total in respect of income, 113,773*l.* 2*s.* 5*d.*; in respect of capital for investment in Government stock, 19,032*l.* 16*s.* 3*d.*, leaving a balance on hand of 9,059*l.* 0*s.* 8*d.*

No. XCVIII.—NATIONAL GALLERY AND BRITISH MUSEUM,

Copy of Letter from Mr. Wilson to the First Commissioner of Works, dated 27th November, 1857; of Letter from Sir Benjamin Hall to the Treasury, dated 20th January, 1858; and of Letter from Mr. Panizzi to the Treasury, dated 27th January, 1858; relative to the National Gallery and British Museum. (The Chancellor of the Exchequer.) 4th February, 1858. (28.)

ON the 27th November, 1857, Mr. Wilson, on behalf of the Lords of the Treasury, communicated to the First Commissioner of Works the report of the Commissioners to determine the site of the new National Gallery, and to report on the desirableness of combining with it the Fine Art and Archæological Collection of the British Museum. The majority of the Commissioners were in favour of the Trafalgar Square site, and accordingly the Treasury desired the Commissioner of Works to cause an estimate to be prepared of the probable expenses of adopting the recommendation of the Commissioners. The expenses involved in the adoption of this plan included the purchase of a site for a barrack, and the construction of the same; the indemnification of the parish of St. Martin for their workhouse, and for the removal of their baths and washhouses; the provision of a site for the Royal Academy and the construction of a suitable building; and the construction of a building for the National Gallery upon the Trafalgar Square site, as enlarged by the removal of the St. George's Barrack and St. Martin's Workhouse.

On the 20th January, 1858, Sir Benjamin Hall informed the Treasury that the approximate estimate for enlarging and improving the National Gallery upon the Trafalgar Square site amounted to 500,000*l*.

On the 27th January, Mr. Panizzi, the principal librarian, on behalf of the Trustees of the British Museum, communicated to the Lords of the Treasury certain resolutions unanimously passed at a special meeting of the Standing Committee of the Trustees. These resolutions were to the effect that there is a great deficiency of space at present for the proper exhibition of the different collections in the different departments of the Museum. That in providing an adequate space for that purpose, it is desirable to contemplate the future and progressive, as well as the actual and immediate, requirements of the British Museum. Other resolutions were also passed by a majority of the Trustees in favour of Mr. Smirke's plan for the purchase of land to the north of the Museum.

No. LVI.—SANITARY STATE OF THE PEOPLE.

Papers relating to the Sanitary State of the People of England, being the Results of an Inquiry into the different Proportions of Death produced by certain Diseases in different Districts in England communicated to the General Board of Health by Edward Headlam Greenhow, M.D., Licentiate of the Royal College of Physicians, with an Introductory Report by Dr. A. Simon, the Medical Officer of the Board, on the Preventability of certain Kinds of Premature Death.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

INTRODUCTORY REPORT by DR. A. SIMON.

England is divided into 628 registration districts. Of these there are 64 (containing a population of about a million inhabitants) wherein the annual death-rate per 100,000 ranges from 1,500 to 1,700. But the average death-rate of England is about 2,266. Nearly nine-tenths of the registration districts of England show death-rates which are in excess of 1,700, and which, in some notorious cases, run up to 3,100, 3,300, and 3,600. No one pretends that people live too long in the 64 districts first referred to. That life is artificially shortened in the other 564 districts, seems the necessary alternative. At this point, the general statistical argument requires to be reinforced by the more detailed results of two other inquiries:—first, what does medical experience say as to the dependence on removable causes; in other words, as to the preventability of certain diseases which contribute largely to the total mortality of England? and, secondly, what difference is there in the prevalence of these diseases in different districts of England? It is the second of these questions which, to a great extent, Dr. Greenhow has answered. The value of his answer consists in its applicability to the purposes of local sanitary education and local sanitary improvement; an applicability which cannot be otherwise tested and defined than by taking the two questions together, and considering the different local pressures of different diseases in connection with the degree to which each disease admits of prevention.

First, then, as to the preventability of certain diseases:—

Natural Death.—Death by old age is, physiologically speaking, the only normal death of man. And its essence is this:—that organs necessary to the mere vegetative life of the body have naturally undergone such modifications of texture that they can no longer fulfil their former ministerial uses. Having first ripened to their several prefigured patterns, and having performed for a while their several appointed functions, they become incapable of continuing longer without decline. Thus it is that death, unaccelerated by exterior influences, creeps at last on all; and the textural changes which mark its gradual progress are probably, in their kind, common to every living creature. In the human subject it is by degenerative changes in the heart and arteries that natural death most frequently occurs. And to undergo these changes in old age is as natural a part of human life as to have attained in succession youth and manhood. But the period when they tend to consummate themselves in death is not precisely defined. There are personal differences of longevity. Death, virtually by old age, comes to some men even before their sixtieth year. To most men it comes much later. A few complete their fifth vicenniad, and even carry far into it their

noblest mental endowments. And apart, so far as is known, from any immediate dependence on exterior circumstances, these differences tend to repeat themselves in particular families. They are differences of stock. But they are not operative to any great extent. And it cannot be far from the truth to assume that, if there were no artificial interference with the duration of life, death by natural decay would, in this country, under its present circumstances, usually happen at about 80 years of age.

Premature Death.—Now little more than a tenth part of the deaths of England happen at 75 years and upwards. And thus, physiologically speaking, one may say that at least nine-tenths of the entire mortality occurs more or less prematurely. But this physiological statement must be guarded from misapplication. It would require more knowledge than is yet possessed by the professors of medicine to say that all premature death is, even in theory, preventable death. And while the science of medicine is hitherto unable to advance this proposition, even as ideally true, still less can any reasonable person pretend that, practically speaking, it so much as approximates to truth.

Unavoidable Causes of Premature Death.—The daily experience of every man is sufficient to tell him that there always have operated, and always must operate, very many causes of premature death. Most properly he may seek to reduce these causes to their least possible degree of destructiveness. Most properly he may watch against too indolent an acquiescence in any existing evil. But he cannot refuse to recognize that a certain proportion of what science classifies as premature death is, to all practical intents and purposes, not preventable.

Congenital and Hereditary Influence.—For, first, the certainty of premature death—a certainty quite irrespective of the immediate influence of exterior circumstances—is a condition under which many are born. Children come into the world, sometimes with malformations, which render healthy life impossible; sometimes with inherited disease or inherited morbid predisposition; sometimes with various ill-defined weaknesses of vitality, which render them unable to struggle onward, even for a single year, or dispose them more readily to sink under the ordinary trials of infancy. One family has become liable to gout and rheumatism; another to tubercular diseases; another to epilepsy and mania; another to this or that other form of visceral or humoral disease; and children born of these stocks have not the average expectation of healthy life. A certain share of every existing generation has in it from these sources the seeds of premature death. Such seeds may or may not be developed. In respect of many of the cases referred to, medicine has hitherto but imperfectly learnt the art of prevention. In respect of others (and fortunately this applies to the most fatal of the number), exterior circumstances can be shown to exert immense influence, certainly over the development of individual predisposition, and probably over the further propagation of that hereditary fault. Unquestionably, however, deaths referred to under the present head are, to a certain extent, not preventable. And in order to determine whether the limits at which they become preventable have in any particular case been exceeded, the following considerations furnish, I think, the safest argument for guidance:—(1), that the influence alleged to be non-preventable in the causation of these deaths is the personal or family predisposition; (2), that in any one country of moderate extent and mixed race, with a population exercising from part to part the freest intercourse, and intermarriage, and

intermigration, this influence would tend to be uniformly diffused; and (3), that, therefore, no natural reason can be conceived for its being in any one district of such a country much more powerful than in another district. So far, then, as personal predisposition accounts for the diseases in question, they would hardly be expected to vary much in their proportionate fatality in different districts of England. And any considerable exception to their uniform diffusion would suggest a very strong suspicion, that in the districts where they excessively prevail, certain exciting causes must be specially and preventably in operation.

Contagions of Small-Pox, Hooping-Cough, Measles, and Scarlatina.—A further—practically speaking, unavoidable—cause of premature death in every civilized country is the risk of its current contagions. In Europe there are certain infectious complaints, of which, once in life, nearly all persons are susceptible. The contagions of these diseases are never long absent from large communities; and a child, during its first few years of life, is almost of necessity exposed to them. Hence it is that, in European experience, the diseases in question—small-pox, hooping-cough, measles, and scarlatina—are so well known as diseases of childhood. To those who choose to avail themselves of Jenner's discovery, small-pox—the most fatal malady of this class—needs no longer be counted as a danger; but liability to the other infections is a more or less considerable risk which science hitherto cannot avert. Hooping-cough, measles, and scarlatina are, therefore, to a certain extent, inevitable causes of premature death. The severity with which any one of these diseases attacks an individual patient depends on his individual constitution; and often we are able to observe that corresponding differences of constitution (the sources of which are quite unknown to us) belong to several members of the same family. But, given a certain severity of attack, the fatality of these diseases is greatly and evidently proportionate to exterior conditions. And the poor suffer from them immensely more than the rich, partly from possessing less ample means of treatment, but mainly because of the impure atmosphere which commonly surrounds the patient in his overcrowded and unventilated dwelling. In respect, then, of these diseases (as of those previously spoken of) it may fairly be supposed that their natural tendency is to prevail with equal severity or equal mildness in all districts of England; and any disproportionate fatality of these diseases in certain districts, as compared with their habitual fatality in other districts, is a fact which requires to be accounted for by the operation of local causes.

Privation.—Practically, too, it must be reckoned that, even with the high civilization of this country, and with its unequalled system of poor-law relief, privation still exists as a cause of premature death. Among the surgical cases treated at hospitals and dispensaries, diseases from insufficient nourishment form a very considerable part. Children especially suffer from this cause; and many of their so-called scrofulous ailments are in fact mere starvation-disorders, which a few weeks of better feeding can cure. And, besides the direct stint of food, and that indirect stint which consists in the use of damaged and adulterated provisions, there are other kinds of privation practically inseparable from poverty. It must have scanty house-room; and this—at least, till the means of ventilating poor dwellings are thoroughly popularized—is an increased liability to disease. It must have scanty clothing and scanty fuel, and, with little other protection than habit, must encounter inclemencies of weather. It must have a weight of care in its

daily struggle for subsistence; it must have little of the variety and pleasurable excitement which are good for mind and body. Few tasks can be more difficult than to estimate the diffusion of poverty, as distinguished from pauperism, in different parts of England; and I have no means of determining whether poverty, in this sense, be one of the local conditions to which any preventable disease at all closely proportions itself. But, as regards pauperism, such certainly is not the case; a glance at Dr. Greenhow's table is sufficient to show that districts with the highest, and districts with the lowest, proportion of pauper-population do not stand opposedly to one another as regards general death-rate, or as regards the death-rates of particular diseases.

Accidental injuries cannot be excluded from the busy life of a large community. Wounds, fractures and contusions, suffocation and drowning, must occasionally everywhere be causes of premature death. And personal carelessness, which contributes largely to produce these casualties, will also bear fruit in a certain number of other premature deaths—especially of deaths of young children by burns and scalds.

Criminal violence, too, will cut short some lives; and vice and intemperance will receive some of their retribution in the form of untimely death.

Congenital malformations and weaknesses, in their primary or in their secondary influence; hereditary dispositions to chronic and paroxysmal disease of one kind and another; the infectious disorders of infancy and childhood; accidental and criminal injuries; privation in its various forms; intemperance and profligacy;—these are causes of premature death, which, it seems to me, must be accepted as, to a certain extent, inevitable. To a still further extent they must be accepted as only mitigable by degrees. And up to the extent of their inevitability, the death-rate of a population must rise beyond that which would prevail (1,250) if all men lived to their full term of fourscore years. But what is the extent to which they are inevitable? Experience seems to have answered this question—not perfectly, indeed—but with an approximation which, if wrong, is wrong adversely to exaggeration. There are populations which have habitual death-rates of 1,500, 1,600, and 1,700. A million of the inhabitants of England are living on those terms. In 64 registration districts scattered about the land, life is at that advantage. Are those parts of England exempt, or comparatively exempt, from the morbid influences just recapitulated? There is no shadow of reason for believing that such is the case. They suffer from all the influences in question to the extent to which those influences may fairly be considered inevitable. Deaths thus arising occur even too abundantly in the healthiest districts of England. They are included in the margin of 250, 350, and 450, which, in respect of such districts, raises the theoretical death-rate of 1,250 to 1,500, 1,600, and 1,700 respectively. And at this point, as seems to me, the line of demarcation may reasonably and practically be drawn. If it appears (as it presently will appear) that the inevitable influences in question are in some districts of England greatly more fatal than in others, there will be strong *prima facie* grounds for believing that the local excesses of fatality are due to local circumstances of aggravation; that these aggravating local circumstances are such as it is fully possible to counteract; and that of the total mortality ascribed to these influences in England, a very large share is preventable. This conclusion rises in importance in proportion as the diseases to which it

relates are more and more frequent. It will presently be applied to those, which of all are most fatal to our population; namely, first, to tubercular and other diseases of the lungs; and, secondly, to the more special disorders of childhood. But a large share of the premature mortality of England depends on diseases, respecting which it cannot be conceded that they (like those last discussed) are, to a certain extent, inevitable. On the contrary, thousands of deaths annually result from diseases which are, in the most absolute sense, preventable; diseases, which either will not arise, or will not spread, in communities which follow certain well-known sanitary laws. For, first, there are certain diseases of which it is hardly a metaphor to say, that they consist in the extension of a putrefactive process from matters outside the body to matters inside the body; diseases, of which the very essence is filth; diseases, which have no local habitation, except where putrefiable air or putrefiable water furnishes means for their rise or propagation; diseases, against which there may be found a complete security in the cultivation of public and private cleanliness. Yet some tens of thousands of deaths annually arise in England from these diseases. And again, there are diseases of other kinds, which annually kill some thousands more of our population, though the appointed preventives are so definite and so accessible, that scarcely a death from such causes ought to occur in any civilized country. To these diseases, so entirely preventable, and to the preventable proportion of those other diseases, is referred, by the allegation which I first quoted, at least a quarter of the mortality of England. And I beg now to bring under your notice some details in reference to both those classes of disease; as to their pressure in England generally; as to the distribution of that pressure in different parts of England; and as to the experience which has been obtained in the means of preventing their rise or reducing their fatality.

1. *Cholera*, *diarrhœa*, and *dysentery* have, during the nine years 1848-56, been fatal to 237,498 persons. If this number of deaths had been equally divided, the annual number would have been 26,388; but the distribution has been unequal. In the two years 1849 and 1854 there were 116,246 deaths; in the two years 1850 and 1855 there were but 29,425, or little more than a fourth part of the former amount. This inequality depends on the present tendency of diarrhoeal diseases to prevail in certain years epidemically. A large proportion of the excess of deaths in 1849 and 1854 occurred during a few summer weeks, when the epidemic influence was at its height, and when it occasioned in various parts of the country a very alarming mortality. Diarrhoeal diseases, for two reasons, claim particular attention. In the first place, they are increasing in this country. During the years 1838-42 the deaths occasioned by them were only 13 per 1,000 of the deaths from all causes; during the years 1847-55 their proportion was five times as great. And, in the second place, their epidemic aggravations are sometimes of appalling severity. These things are almost forgotten when they are past; but probably, since the days of the great plague, death has never so scared an English population as in the cholera-epidemic of Newcastle in 1853, and in the Golden Square outbreak in 1854. These diseases have prevailed in different parts of the country with an astounding inequality. The average annual death-rate by cholera has ranged from nothing and nearly nothing in some districts to 357 and 365 and 403 in others. If cholera alone had shown this enormous range of difference, it might properly be questioned whether the history of two epidemics (for the

figures are of course mainly derived from the death-lists of 1848-9 and 1853-4) is enough to justify generalizations in reference to the local affinities of a disease apparently so erratic and fitful in its attacks. Accidental influences might have counted for much in this restricted experience; and it might be expected that our next epidemic visitation would do something towards equalizing the death-rates. No doubt this deserves consideration; most of all in those places which have hitherto escaped cholera apparently by no merits of their own. But cholera has not been alone in showing this great range. Local differences of death-rate scarcely less wide have been shown by those diarrhoeal diseases which are always present among the population. Ordinary diarrhoea and dysentery have ranged in their joint average annual death-rate from under 10 in several districts, to 303 and 305 and 345 in others. Or if all diarrhoeal diseases, epidemic and non-epidemic, be taken together (as Dr. Greenhow has taken them) under the single heading of "alvine flux," the average annual death-rate by this class of disease has ranged in different districts from 4, 8, 10, 14, and 17 in some, to 463, 493, 519, 568, and 663 in others. It may be imagined that the lowest of these death-rates occurs under circumstances of exceptional healthiness which cannot be realized. So, instead of taking it for comparison (though I do not admit the objection), I will take ten times its amount as my standard. Let the importance of the subject be estimated from one simple statement:—If the diarrhoeal death-rate of England generally were even only ten times the minimum diarrhoeal death-rate, there would be an annual saving in England of nearly 20,000 lives.

Nothing in medicine is more certain than the general meaning of high diarrhoeal death-rates. The mucous membrane of the intestinal canal is the excreting surface to which nature directs all the accidental putridities which enter us. Whether they have been breathed, or drunk, or eaten, or sucked up into the blood from the surfaces of foul sores, or directly injected into blood-vessels by the physiological experimenter, there it is that they settle and act. As wine "gets into the head," so these agents get into the bowels. There, as their universal result, they tend to produce diarrhoea;—simple diarrhoea, in the absence of specific infections; specific diarrhoea, when the ferments of cholera and typhoid fever are in operation. And any such distribution of diarrhoeal disease as has just been noticed warrants a presumption—indeed, so far as I know, a practical certainty—that, in the districts which suffer the high diarrhoeal death-rates, the population either breathes or drinks a large amount of putrefying animal refuse.

A certain quantity of diarrhoea depends, no doubt, on other causes than putrefactive pollution of the system. Phthisis not rarely proves fatal by its effects on the intestinal canal; and probably a few of these deaths are registered under the name of the secondary disease. Temporary faults of diet very often occasion diarrhoea, though not often fatal diarrhoea. Habitually improper food (especially as regards infants and very young children) and various other influences contribute to the total of diarrhoeal deaths. But these various causes operate evenly, or almost evenly, throughout the country. And that their aggregate results are inconsiderable may be inferred from the minimum figures quoted above. The fullest allowance for those causes cannot sensibly affect the general conclusion which I have stated.

That conclusion might be supported by almost innumerable instances, both in reference to the occasional epidemic prevalence of cholera, and in

reference to the habitual endemic prevalence of diarrhoea and dysentery. To the latter point I shall hereafter refer again in speaking of the death-rates of young children, who are probably the chief sufferers from endemic disorder of the bowels. And in reference to the epidemic disease, I trouble you with only two illustrations.

The first relates to the exemption of Tynemouth, in 1853, from an epidemic which prevailed in its neighbourhood. Newcastle and Gateshead suffered on that occasion the most terrible outbreak of cholera yet experienced in England, and lost within a few weeks nearly 2,000 of their population. In the borough of Tynemouth, only eight miles below Newcastle, and connected with it by railway as well as by river, there occurred during that epidemic period only four fatal indigenous cases. This escape was not due to an entire non-participation in the epidemic influence; for diarrhoea was generally prevalent in Tynemouth while cholera was in Newcastle. Nor did it depend on the absence of opportunities for contagion; for many thousand persons from Newcastle and Gateshead fled to Tynemouth, and many continued to pass daily between the towns during the whole time of the visitation. The remarkable immunity of Tynemouth is the more remarkable from its contrast with the heavy mortality experienced during the epidemic of 1848-9, when the deaths in the parish from cholera and diarrhoea amounted to 463. The great difference between these results seems to have been entirely due to sanitary improvements effected in Tynemouth during the interval between the two visitations.

The second case relates to the distribution of cholera-deaths during two epidemics in the southern districts of London. These districts (comprising nearly a fifth of the entire population of the metropolis) have been notorious for the great severity with which cholera has visited them on each occasion of its epidemic prevalence in England. During the last invasion these districts were accidentally the seat of a gigantic sanitary experiment; and a difference in one sanitary condition was seen to influence most remarkably the distribution of the cholera-mortality. For throughout those districts, during the epidemic of 1853-4, there were distributed two different qualities of water; so that one large population was drinking a tolerably good water, another large population an exceedingly foul water; while in all other respects these two populations (being intermixed in the same districts, and even in the same streets of these districts) were living under precisely similar social and sanitary circumstances. And when, at the end of the epidemic period, the death-rates of these populations were compared, it was found that the cholera-mortality, in the houses supplied by the bad water, had been $3\frac{1}{2}$ times as great as in the houses supplied by the better water. This proof of the fatal influence of foul water was rendered still stronger by reference to what had occurred in the epidemic of 1848-9. For on that occasion the circumstances of the two populations were to some extent reversed. That company which during the later epidemic gave the better water, had given during the earlier epidemic even a worse water than its rival's; and the population supplied by it had at that time suffered a proportionate cholera-mortality. So that the consequence of an improvement made by this water company, in the interval between the two epidemics, was, that, whereas in the epidemic of 1848-9 there had died 1,925 of their tenants, there died in the epidemic of 1853-4 only 611; while among the tenants of the rival company (whose supply between the two epidemics had become worse instead of better) the deaths, which in 1848-9 were 2,880,

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had in 1853-4 increased to 3,476. And when these numbers are made proportionate to the populations or tenancies concerned in the two periods respectively, it is found that the cholera death-rates per 10,000 tenants of the companies were about as follows:—for those who in 1848-9 drank the worse water, 125; for their neighbours, who in the same epidemic drank a water somewhat less impure, 118; for those who in 1853-4 drank the worst water which had been supplied, 130; for those who in this epidemic drank a comparatively clean water, 37. The quality of water which (as is illustrated in the first three of these numbers) has produced such fatal results in the metropolis—causing two-thirds of the cholera-deaths in those parts of London which have most severely suffered from the disease—has been river-water polluted by town-drainage; water pumped from the Thames within range of the sewage of London; water which, according to the concurrent testimony of chemical and microscopical observers, was abundantly charged with matters in course of putrefactive change.

2. *Fever*.—Under the Registrar-General's head of *Typhus* (which does not include infantile fever or remittent fever) there were recorded during the nine years 1848-56 as many as 156,340 deaths; being at the rate of 17,371 deaths per annum. The common judgment of the medical profession on the controllability of continued fever is well expressed in a phrase which the late M. Baudens, an eminent physician of the French army, used in describing his Crimean experience of the disease:—“*On pourrait le faire naître et mourir à volonté.*” It is essentially a disease of filth. Where the unventilated atmosphere of habitually overcrowded places reeks with a stagnant steam from the breathing and sweating of its inhabitants—a steam which condenses in fœtid drops on the window-panes, or soaks and rots in the papered or plastered walls; or where putrefying fæces are accumulated in cesspools or ill-conditioned drains, to taint the air or leak into the drinking water of a population; there this disease prevails in one or other of its forms.

In one or other of its forms, I say; for the researches of modern pathologists have shown that, for accuracy's sake, it is requisite to distinguish at least two forms of continued fever. And it seems highly probable that these forms, while both are equally associated with filth, are yet not both essentially associated with the same kind of filth. One of them (the typhoid fever of modern observers) has intimate affinity to the cause last mentioned—the fæcal pollution of air and water. The other (which is now distinctively called typhus) more nearly associates itself with over-crowding, especially of destitute persons, and probably has its essential source in the putrefaction of their undispersed exhalations. The typhoid form, specially affecting the intestinal canal, is, in its nature as in its causes, very closely related to the diarrhoeal diseases already spoken of. There exists no conclusive evidence to show whether this form of disease be in any degree or any manner contagious; but almost certainly it cannot spread atmospherically by means of exhalations from the sick. Distinctive typhus, on the other hand, works its chief results without affecting the bowels. Possibly its first and greatest influence is exerted on the blood, but its symptoms are chiefly obvious in the nervous system, the skin, and the lungs; and the exhalations from a patient undergoing it are, till they have been neutralized by dilution with pure air, capable of communicating the same form of disease. It has some hitherto unexplained connection with extremes of poverty and destitution. No such ravages have been made by it as when

it has been associated with famine, and—apparently by reason of this association—has prevailed as a national epidemic.

A knowledge of the distinction between these two forms of disease has hitherto not become general enough in England for the name of typhoid fever to have been kept separate in the registration returns. Though probably much more fatal in ordinary years than the true typhus, with which it is confounded, it has hitherto no statistical existence. I have, therefore, no choice but to speak of continued fever as though it were but a single form of disease, communicable from person to person.

Among the 105 registration districts into which Dr. Greenhow has inquired, there is none but has suffered deaths from fever. The death-rate from this cause has ranged from 21 in one district, 33 in a second, and under 50 in five others, to 204, 207, and 209. The fact of a few deaths from fever cannot be accepted as conclusive proof of sanitary neglect in the district where they have occurred; for unavoidable contagion may have been imported—even the fatal cases themselves may have come—from the fever-nest of some adjoining jurisdiction. But I do not hesitate to say that the registration of any fever-deaths in a district not suffering from famine is a thing which, for the credit of the local sanitary authority, ought to be susceptible of some such explanation. And as the death-rate rises from a minimum of 21, which is itself an excess, to a maximum of 209, which is ten times that excess, the chance of finding exculpatory circumstances is diminished at every step. Perhaps, even in the districts which have suffered least from fever, such circumstances could not commonly be shown to have prevailed; but infinitely less is the probability of excuse, and infinitely greater is the presumption of gross sanitary neglect, in those districts which have suffered tenfold the minimum fatality.

The undoubted contagiousness of one form of fever may, as I have said, be a partial exculpation of districts where deaths from typhus have been registered; but even this only at the expense of other districts whence the contagion has come, and without any lessening of the national responsibility for the quantity of preventable death. And where many fever-deaths have been registered, the exculpation cannot be more than partial. Quite exceptionally, a well-ordered household may receive the fatal contagion from some filthy hovel which has bred it. But, generally speaking, the contagion has little tendency to multiply itself, except where the same conditions exist as those under which it began. Oftenest of all, therefore, it is from hovel to hovel, from crowded lodging-house to crowded lodging-house, that the infection of fever spreads. Whether it be commonly requisite for the origination of fever in these filthy places that the specific contagion should each time be reintroduced from without, is a theoretical question on which the medical profession is not unanimous; but the practical lesson, respecting which there is no difference of opinion, is admirably taught by the most eminent medical teacher of the present generation, as “the unquestionable fact that fever is fostered and spread through those impurities which sanitary measures are intended to banish . . . The specific exciting cause of continued fever cannot, perhaps, be utterly expelled or precluded; but when present in a community, it may be rendered comparatively harmless by taking away the main conditions of its morbid efficacy and of its faculty of propagation.”

Every collection of medical experience teems with instances to illustrate what are those “main conditions” on which the fatality of fever depends.

Such instances are of every degree of magnitude, but in substance they all agree. The experience of common lodging-houses, the experience of single courts in a town, the experience of hospitals and workhouses, the experience of barracks, the experience of the navy, the experience of prisons—all are to the same effect. Every history of the worst prevalence of fever, when it has existed independently of famine, has connected its ravages with overcrowding and filth. Not a century has passed since it was distinctively the disease of prisons. It was the gaol fever of our great John Howard, who well knew the sanitary circumstances which develop it.

The keeping of criminals has been amended with due regard to sanitary requirements; and now, if even a single felon were known to die in England under circumstances which 85 years ago were the rule and habit of prison life, the whole strength of public opinion would express itself as against a murder. Yet, outside that privileged area, fever continues its ravages. It continues them under circumstances which—except for the mere bars and bolts of the prison-house—are identical with those which Howard described. And if his language seems familiar to the eye, it is not because his work has of late years often been consciously quoted. It is because the same close dark cells, the same damp floor, the same fœtid atmosphere, have had to be again and again described by officers of health and parochial medical officers; no longer, indeed, as the scandals of prison discipline, but as constituting the too frequent household circumstances of the poor. Chiefly from among our labouring population fever takes its annual 17,000 or 18,000 victims. And besides the thousands whom it kills, there are many times the number whom it prostrates for weeks and months; and whom with their families it impoverishes, or perhaps ruins and pauperizes. Howard closed his memorable appeal by suggesting that “even if no mercy were due to prisoners, the gaol distemper is a national concern of no small importance.” Its claims to this rank of importance are surely not yet at an end while its causes remain virulent in the homes of our working population, while its cruel contagion is maintained at their cost, and while so many thousand lives are yearly sacrificed to the negligence which lets it continue.

3. *Pulmonary Affections*, including phthisis, cause very nearly a quarter of the annual mortality of England. Every 100,000 of our population yield, on an average, 552 annual victims to this deadly class of disorder. This death-rate is far from being uniform throughout the country. In the northern division of England the death-rate is only 463; in the adjoining north-western division it is 683; in Cumberland and Herefordshire it is 435; in Lancashire it is 706. Still wider is the range of difference in the district death-rates. They vary from 216, 242, and 304, to 851, 859, and 999. In order to recognize the local conditions which determine these differences of death-rate, it is requisite to distinguish three principal forms of pulmonary affection.

a. First, there is *pulmonary phthisis*, which kills, on an average, in England more than 50,000 persons a year. And besides these, who die under the pulmonary form of tubercular disease, 8,000 more are annually registered as dying of scrofula and *tabes mesenterica*. And under the same constitutional tendency, manifested in still other forms of local disease, there must remain other thousands to count. Phthisis, therefore, deserves especial study; not only because of the 50,000 deaths which it annually causes, but because it is the type of a great family of diseases, whereof

the other members are hitherto less perfectly registered than it; and because, in observing the local distribution of deaths by phthisis, we can tolerably well estimate the distribution of many thousands of other deaths.

There is a further reason, for which the mortality by phthisis ought to be very jealously criticized—a reason for which its local differences of pressure deserve quite peculiarly to be regarded as a matter of national concern. The tendency to tubercular disease is one which transmits itself from parent to child; and thus, if in any one generation the disease be artificially engendered or increased, that misfortune does not confine its consequences to the generation which first suffers them. Whatever tends to increase tubercular disease among the adult members of a population must be regarded as assuredly tending to produce a progressive degeneration of race. In proceeding to criticize the range of death-rate by tubercular phthisis, I must observe that the nature of the disease exempts its death-rate from many sources of fallacy to which the local statistics of some other diseases are subject. Phthisis is chronic, non-infectious, non-epidemic; in districts of some size it is not likely to vary much from year to year; and a septennial average of its district pressure must almost of necessity give a true representation of what it professes to represent. But as phthisis principally affects the ages subsequent to puberty, statistical results are perhaps most trustworthy when they are calculated for ages over twenty. And because certain diseases, which may be wrongly confounded with true phthisis, are much more frequent in the men than in the women of the districts which suffer them, the female death-rate is a surer test than the male. Accordingly, the most decisive figures for measuring differences of local death-rate by phthisis are those which relate to the female population, and especially to the female population at ages above puberty.

Phthisis.—District death-rates by phthisis generally (without distinction of sex or age) range from 134, 144, 165, 173, and 183, to 390, 407, 409, 421, and 445. The female death-rate by phthisis ranges from 156 to 517. The adult female death-rate by phthisis ranges from 229 to 588. These figures bear unequivocal testimony to the operation of local causes in the production of tubercular disease. The most important among such local causes is shown by Dr. Greenhow to consist in the industrial relations of the people. The great contrasts are found to lie between populations respectively agricultural and manufacturing. In proportion as the male and female populations are severally attracted to in-door branches of industry, in such proportion, other things being equal, their respective death-rates by phthisis are increased. This fact associates itself with a very important result, which was well developed a few years ago by Dr. Baly in his admirable essay on the mortality in prisons. From examination of the medical records of the Millbank Penitentiary, he had learnt “that the mortality caused by tubercular disease had been between three and four times as great during the eighteen years 1825–42 among the convicts confined in this prison, as it was in the year 1842 among persons of the same period of life in London generally; and that three-fourths of the excess of deaths from all causes in the penitentiary above the rate of mortality of all persons in the metropolis of the same period of life had been due to the prevalence of that disease.” Comparing the large number of prisoners in whom tubercular disease of the lungs first showed itself while they were in the penitentiary, with the small number who were affected with it at the time of their reception, he was convinced “that imprisonment exerted here a very

powerful influence in causing the development of the disease." Extending his inquiry to the other prisons of England, and to the prisons of other States in Europe and America, he found that the influence was one of universal operation, and learnt (as might have been expected) that other forms of scrofula were developed in the same proportion as pulmonary phthisis; that not merely this one form of the infliction, but tubercular disease in all its forms, resulted from the long-continued influence of imprisonment on the bodily health. This influence appears to be partly physical and partly moral:—among its component parts (with cold and pooriness of diet), Dr. Baly enumerates deficient ventilation, sedentary occupations, and want of active bodily exercise, and a listless or dejected state of mind. During the fifteen years which have elapsed since the publication of Dr. Baly's paper, progress has been made towards removing from prison-life many causes of scrofulous disease; and as the fever-mortality of Howard's time long ago followed the removal of its causes, so, no doubt, the high tubercular mortality of prisons is at present in course of extinction. It is to be hoped that the evil, as it exists in our great centres of manufacture, may prove to be not inevitable. Removable causes have notoriously in many cases so much to do with the increase of tubercular disease, that it at least deserves patient and skilful inquiry to determine whether the development of phthisis among men and women engaged in manufacture really be an essential appanage of such employment, even when not excessively laboured in, or depend perhaps on defective ventilation and other removable accidents of the system. The opinion of the medical profession would certainly incline to the latter view. It would suggest that an inquiry into the sanitary circumstances of our great manufacturing populations must almost certainly lead to the discovery of evils which may be palliated or removed, and consequently to the indication of means for lessening this cruel tax on the industry of our people. Inadequate ventilation is an influence not unlikely to prevail where numbers of persons work together in one in-door employment; and medical experience would point very decidedly to this influence, wherever it exists, as an adequate explanation of high tubercular mortality.

b. *Pulmonary Inflammations*.—A second very important part of the mortality from pulmonary affections is that which consists in deaths from common non-tubercular pulmonary disease among the labouring population. And the best available materials for comparison are got by taking together all diseases, except phthisis, of the respiratory organs in the male population at ages above twenty. The local death-rates calculated from these materials range from 66 to 869. And Dr. Greenhow shows the important fact, that high death-rates in the present category mainly depend on the local pursuit of particular branches of industry. Two kinds of occupation are in this especially hurtful; first, those which give rise to mechanical irritation of the air passages, by diffusing in the air of workplaces any considerable amount of metallic or earthy grit, or even of flax-dust or cotton or woollen fluff; secondly, those in which the operatives are exposed to abrupt changes of temperature. At the head of the first class, Dr. Greenhow places the mining of lead, tin, and copper; and he specially refers to "the most exclusively lead-mining district in England," as one which loses by diseases of the chest in consequence of its prevalent employment a "larger annual proportion of its adult male inhabitants than the unhealthiest city in the kingdom," and as "the place in which there is a larger proportion of widows

than in any other place in the kingdom." Towns which are the seat of fine manufacture in metals (especially of cutlery-manufacture) and towns where certain textile manufactures are carried on, and districts of pottery-manufacture, are shown to suffer high mortality from the same class of diseases. Again, in some of the above-named occupations, as well as in various other branches of industry, there are processes which require to be conducted at a high temperature; so that the operatives, especially in winter, are exposed to vicissitudes of heat and cold, and derive from this cause such liability to lung disease as affects very considerably the death-rate of the district. It is not easy to separate this influence from the other with precision enough for statistical purposes; but it seems probable that the high mortality of male operatives in pottery-manufacture may be more due to this cause, while that of female operatives in the same manufacture would be rather due to mechanical irritation of the lungs. For the biscuit-rubbing (which diffuses a quantity of gritty dust) is chiefly done by women; while the slip-kilns (in which the pappy "slip" of clay and flint is evaporated at a high temperature) as well as the baking kilns and furnaces are of course tended by men. It seems probable that in some districts the chronic inflammatory diseases which result from mechanical irritation of the lungs are not properly distinguished from true tubercular phthisis; and that deaths from the former diseases are often mistakenly certified for registration under the name of "consumption." Fallacy from this source is avoided by taking together as a single group all affections of the respiratory organs, tubercular and non-tubercular; and when this is done, the resulting scale of adult male death-rates is seen to range from 221 and 306 to 1,298 and 1,440. The two last death-rates belong to the two principal lead-mining districts; and, that their enormous excess depends on the prevailing male occupation, is made manifest by Dr. Greenhow's figures. He shows that in these very two districts, where the male death-rates are respectively 1,298 and 1,440, the corresponding female death-rates are but 717 and 779. And this fact is the more convincing, because it seems that, apart from interfering circumstances, the pulmonary death-rate of adult females tends to be somewhat higher than that of adult males.

c. The *infantine death-rate* from pulmonary affections is a third very important head under which to consider our national mortality from that class of disease. Every year more than 23,000 children under five years of age die of inflammations of the respiratory organs, besides nearly 4,000 whose deaths are attributed to phthisis. And these 27,000 deaths are so unequally distributed, that the corresponding death-rate in proportion to the infantine population, ranges from 213 in the healthiest district of England, to 2,897 in the unhealthiest. The causes of this immense range of death-rate may most conveniently be considered as part of the general question of infantine mortality.

Mortality of Young Children.—The death-rates of young children are, in my opinion, among the most important studies in sanitary science. In the first place their tender young lives, as compared with the more hardened and acclimatized lives of the adult population, furnish a very sensitive test of sanitary circumstances; so that differences of infantine death-rate are, under certain qualifications, the best proof of differences of household condition in any number of compared districts. And, secondly, those places where infants are most apt to die, are necessarily the places where survivors are most apt to be sickly; and where, if they struggle through a scrofulous

childhood to realize an abortive puberty, they beget a still sicklier brood than themselves, even less capable of labour, and even less susceptible of education. It cannot be too distinctly recognized that a high local mortality of children must almost necessarily denote a high local prevalence of those causes which determine a degeneration of race. The Registrar-General has not for many years analysed the infantine death-rates of England. But on the one occasion when he published such an analysis (relating to the years 1838-44), it appeared that in some districts the death-rates of childhood were five times as high as in others; and I have no reason to question that similar inequalities prevail at the present time. Deaths which occur in excess within five years of birth are mainly due to two sets of causes; first, to the common infectious diseases of childhood prevailing with unusual fatality; and, secondly, to the endemic prevalence of convulsive disorders, diarrhoea, and pulmonary inflammation.

a. First, then, as regards the infectious diseases of childhood:—Scarlatina, measles, hooping-cough, and small-pox have, during the eight years 1848-55, destroyed 297,555 persons. Their average annual fatality amounts to about 37,000 deaths. In about three-fourths of the total number of deaths, the subjects are under five years of age. These diseases, both separately and jointly, have produced very different death-rates in different districts of England. But special caution is requisite in drawing conclusions from these death-rates. On the one hand, the diseases spread by personal infection:—their diffusion in any district must commonly have been determined by the arrival of an infected person, and by his coming into contact with others who had not yet suffered from the infection with which he was suffering. On the other hand, atmospheric influences have apparently much to do with the epidemic spread of infection; and the influences most favourable to the process, in respect of one disease or another, are absent sometimes for considerable lengths of time. The disease in consequence prevails very unequally in different years, and its inequalities are not simultaneous in all places. It may happen, especially with remote districts, that the infection is absent from among the population at a time when exterior circumstances are favourable to its extension and fatality; and a low death-rate may result from this accident. Or the opposite may be the case;—the infection may be present, with facilities for its personal communication, at a time when exterior chemical conditions are tending to produce what is called an “epidemic period;” and the result will of course be a widely different one. Single years are thus unable to count for a great deal in the calculation of local death-rates; and the comparison of such death-rates is therefore inevitably fallacious, unless it be founded on the experience of considerable periods of time. I therefore do not insist much on district differences, but refer exclusively to those larger results which it seems impossible to misunderstand.

As regards measles, hooping-cough, and scarlet fever, looking only to very large masses of population, and comparing the four millions who occupy the south-eastern quarter of England with the two and a half millions who occupy the north-western counties, I find that the aggregate death-rate from those complaints among the latter population is more than twice as great as among the former. At first sight, one might be disposed to attribute this difference to the greater facilities for mutual infection which exist among the densely collocated population of the north-western counties, and to the consequently earlier age at which, on an average, the infection is likely

to be contracted; influences which, of course, count for something. But (as will presently be seen) certain non-infectious diseases of infancy, especially the convulsive disorders, are in even a greater excess in the same counties. And this fact renders it extremely probable that, if that denser gathering together of the population be the cause of the increased mortality from infectious disorders, it produces its effect not only by rendering the disorders more prone to spread, but likewise by rendering them more fatal to those whom they attack. In other words, it probably illustrates on a large scale one of the effects of overcrowding and defective ventilation, for there can be no doubt that these sanitary defects, existing to the degree in which they would develop the nervous disorders of infancy, would greatly aggravate the fatality of the infectious diseases in question. The fact perhaps further illustrates that very terrible possibility to which I have adverted—an increasing weakness of life in the population of our great centres of industry. Other influences, essentially connected with poverty, will tend to make all these diseases more fatal in places which are thronged with a poor labouring population. And possibly there exist in respect of each disease (especially, perhaps, in respect of scarlatina) certain conditions of local climate—unexamined conditions of soil and water-supply, for instance—which may be not indifferent to the result. But these matters are hitherto uninvestigated; and I do not feel justified in saying more than that they seem to me well deserving of investigation. For the wide range of local death-rates from measles, whooping-cough, and scarlatina, among districts where all the populations have undoubtedly had abundant means of becoming infected, leads to the conclusion that local influences of one kind or another must have been very greatly concerned in determining the proportionate fatality.

Small-pox during the nine years 1848-56 killed 41,290 persons, being at the rate of 4,587 a year. As to the almost entire preventability of these deaths, there is, among competent persons, no difference of opinion. In countries where vaccination is general, the fatality of small-pox has under its influence declined to some small fraction of that which formerly prevailed; so that where formerly in a given population there would have occurred 100 deaths by small-pox, there now occur as few as 4 or 5. Of those who still die of small-pox in England, the immense majority are non-vaccinated or ill-vaccinated persons; and it is certain that, if vaccination were universally performed in the best known manner, deaths by small-pox would be among the rarest entries in the register. The absence of small-pox deaths from the mortality returns of any district, especially of a remote district, does not of necessity indicate that the population is well protected by vaccination; for accidentally it may have happened that during several consecutive years the contagion of small-pox has not been introduced, and that the protectedness of the population has in consequence been untested. But the converse proof is a sufficient one:—the presence of many small-pox deaths in local returns is evidence that vaccination is not satisfactorily practised. Accordingly, the very large continuance of small-pox to which I have adverted is among the most painful facts which are to be gathered from the registration returns of England. To foreign nations, who have learnt from us the means of preventing small-pox, it must seem almost incredible that we still annually suffer four or five thousand deaths by the disease. And the Registrar-General's last quarterly report is in this respect a curious illustration of the slow rate of social progress, containing evidence as it does that in certain considerable districts of England, during the three

months ending March 31, sixty years after Jenner's discovery, deaths by small-pox were amounting to a fourth part of the entire district mortality. No evidence can be more conclusive than this as to the neglect of vaccination in certain parts of the country. But other evidence unfortunately is not absent. In the report which I had last year the honour to present on the subject of vaccination, and in a very excellent paper "On Public Vaccination in England and Wales," communicated by Dr. Seaton to the Association for the Promotion of Social Science, such neglect is abundantly proved. "It is calculated," says Dr. Seaton, in the memorial of the Epidemiological Society, "that where the Vaccination Act works well, 80 per cent. of the births will probably have to be provided for by the public vaccinator. In looking at the infantile public vaccinations for 1854, there will be found unions like Halifax, Biggleswade, and Lincoln, in which there were respectively 73, 82, and 87 per cent. of the births; while in Liverpool there were but 57 per cent.; in Hastings, 44 per cent.; in Newport, 40 per cent.; and in Northampton but 27 per cent. Now what may be done in a town like Halifax may surely be compassed in Liverpool, in Newport, or in Northampton. There can be no conceivable reason why the results which have been attained at Lincoln should not be reached at Hastings. If 90 per cent. can be vaccinated in the Conway union, why should only 40 per cent. be vaccinated in that of Holyhead? I need scarcely say, that it is not for a moment contended that all unions should exhibit the same percentage of public vaccinations. In every union there will be local circumstances to be taken into account, which will influence, and even in some districts (as the colliery districts, where special arrangements are made) influence materially, this percentage; but, making an allowance for these, no such discrepancies as those I have pointed out ought to exist, and any objection which may be raised on that score may altogether, or in a great measure, be got rid of, by taking the same town in different years. Take Durham, for example, in which the public vaccinations were 71 per cent. of the births in 1854, 46 per cent. in 1855, and again 60 per cent. in 1856; or Newport, 40 per cent. in 1854, 62 per cent. in 1855, and only 33 per cent. in 1856; or Devizes, 72 per cent. in 1854, 38 per cent. in 1855, 29 per cent. in 1856; or Winchester, 68 per cent. in 1854, 39 per cent. in 1855, 32 per cent. in 1856. In the same town, with any regular system at work, the percentage of vaccinations would under ordinary circumstances scarcely vary."

b. *Convulsive or nervous diseases, diarrhœa, and respiratory inflammations* may properly be considered together, as regards their endemic prevalence among young children. Their conjoint operation is to destroy every year about 72,000 children, and thus to occasion about a sixth part of the total mortality of England. They are eminently the diseases of towns, perhaps especially of great manufacturing towns. And I take them together, because I have some doubts whether the comparative absence of one or even two of these diseases may not sometimes be counterbalanced by the very high development of another, and whether it might not in consequence be easy to draw wrong conclusions from an isolated scale of death-rates by one of the diseases exclusively. It hardly needs to be stated that these diseases are produced by other than endemic influences. That abrupt changes of temperature, and imperfect protection against cold, favour inflammation of the lungs and air-passages; that improper food (specially likely to be given to the children of the poor) produces diarrhœa; that the irritation of

teething, and many other temporary influences, cause convulsions, no one questions. But why should the resulting death-rates vary as they do in different districts of the country? The average death-rate produced by these disorders in three of the healthiest rural districts of England (taken together, since these districts are small, to increase the basis of comparison) is 925; in the unhealthiest district of England the corresponding death-rate is 6,895. Why are these non-infectious infantine complaints seven times as fatal in one district as another? To answer this question let the diseases be considered separately.

First, of *nervous disorders incidental to early life*, there have died during the nine years 1848-56 as many as 330,881 young children, or annually almost 37,000. And the distribution of this large infantine mortality has been strikingly uneven throughout the country; the resulting local death-rates per 100,000 male children under five years of age having ranged, from 302, 355, 561, 836, and 847, to 2,938, 3,107, 3,301, 3,496, and 3,886. Some of the districts with low death-rates are small, and comparatively few additional deaths would have influenced their rate; but a fair estimate of the very great extent of real range, apart from all sources of fallacy, may be gathered from the fact that the average death-rate by these diseases throughout the north-western counties of England is about $2\frac{1}{2}$ times as high as throughout the eastern, south-eastern, and south midland counties. Two-thirds of the deaths under consideration are registered as deaths by "convulsions;" and probably there is little real difference between these and the other cases which are grouped as "nervous disorders of infancy." Accordingly, the history which I am about to quote, though it nominally relates to only one form of these diseases, may be considered equally instructive in reference to them all. It consists in the remarkable experience of the Dublin Lying-in Hospital, as told by Dr. Collins, formerly master of the institution. Seventy-four years ago this experience was to the effect, that of 17,650 children born in the institution, 2,944 had died within the first fortnight, being more than every sixth child, or about 17 per cent. on the births; and that nearly all these deaths (19 out of every 20) had been occasioned by "nine-day fits." Dr. Clarke, who at that time was master, "considered a foul and vitiated state of the air in the wards of the hospital to be the principal cause of this disease," and adopted arrangements by which "a free circulation of air was at all times secured through the wards, and effected in such a way as to put it out of the power of the nurses to control it." Of 8,033 children born subsequently to the wards being ventilated as described, only 419 died, being about 5.2 per cent. on the births, or less than a third part of the previous mortality. Under additional improvements, the death-rate became still further reduced. Among 16,654 infants born during the seven years of Dr. Collins' mastership, only 286 died (being 1.7 per cent.), and of these only 37 from the disease which had formerly been so fatal; so that, within 50 years of Dr. Clarke's reform, the general mortality had been reduced to one-tenth of what it was, and the special convulsive mortality to one sixty-eighth of what it was.

Secondly, the infantile mortality which arises in *non-tubercular diseases (almost exclusively inflammations) of the respiratory organs* is very large. In 1856 the deaths of children under five years of age from pneumonia, bronchitis, and croup, amounted to 28,763. Of the preventability of these diseases I cannot give so compact an illustration as that which I have just quoted in reference to the nervous diseases of infancy. But I may remark

that their great prevalence in localities which have bred the largest share of certain other endemic diseases has often struck me; and that I have thus been led, from the time of my earliest engagement in sanitary matters, to class the pulmonary inflammations of infancy among the diseases which are oftenest of endemic origin. This view receives definite support from Dr. Greenhow's figures, which show a range of infantile death-rate by these diseases of the lungs, from 155 as a minimum, to 2,397 as a maximum. The mother—whose tendency it is to refer "taking cold" to out-door influences exclusively, and who, if her child's breathing ails, tortures her own conscience with doubts whether he has been exposed ever so little to one wind or another, and whether it would not be safer to keep him altogether within doors—might usefully study this part of the statistics. The more favourable of the death-rates under consideration are those of rural populations, the two lowest of all belonging to the two most northerly of Dr. Greenhow's 105 districts; while the high death-rates eminently belong to towns, and are no doubt mainly dependent on those poisonous in-door influences which attend in such large proportion on the urban residence of the poor, and develop to so great an extent the other forms of infantile mortality.

Thirdly, by diarrhoea and dysentery there annually die more than 11,000 children under five years of age. The death-rate ranges, from an average of 76 in three of the healthiest districts, to 1,452 and 1,687 and 1,779. This in itself (unless infantile diarrhoea were an exception to what I have stated of diarrhoea generally) would suggest as almost certain that, in the places where the high death-rates prevail, there must be operating against the lives of the community those evils which specially depend on defects of house-drainage, with consequent non-removal of animal refuse from about the dwellings and water-sources of the population. And, in fact, it will be seen in Dr. Greenhow's tables, that the seats of a high diarrhoeal mortality among young children chiefly exist amid those dense urban aggregations of life where the well-organised removal of refuse-matters is so specially indispensable to health. Part of the result, even a considerable part, depends no doubt (as is the case with all excessive infantile mortality) on the engagement of mothers in various branches of industry; which, leading to their absence from home, must occasion on a very large scale in some places the improper feeding of infants. But that the other influence is not inoperative—that the causes of adult diarrhoea are likewise to a great extent the causes of infantile diarrhoea—seems quite unquestionable.

Reverting, then, once more to the gross mortality due among young children to the conjoint action of those three classes of disease which I have now separately spoken of, I believe that the vast range of that aggregate mortality in different districts of England is due to the varying prevalence of two local causes:—first, to differences of degree in common sanitary defects of residence; some places abounding more than others in the foul air and foul water of undrained, unpaved, unscavenged, unwashed, unlighted, unventilated localities and houses; and, secondly, to occupational differences among the inhabitants; there being certain large towns where women are greatly engaged in branches of industry away from homes; where consequently these homes are ill kept; where the children are little looked after; and where infants who should be at the breast are improperly fed or starved, or have their cries of hunger and distress quieted by those various fatal opiates which are in such request at the centres of our manufacturing industry.

Means do not exist for appreciating at all accurately the proportionate influence of these two sets of causes. That the second of them is of great importance cannot be denied; and it is on this account, as well as on other accounts, a thing greatly to be desired, that the large manufacturing employers of female labour should address themselves to counteracting, as far as possible, the domestic evils which result from that system of industry. But lest the proportionate influence of this cause should be exaggerated, it is necessary to observe that the highest death-rate among infants, not only from the diseases herè spoken of, but likewise from infectious diseases, exists in a large town where the population is not manufacturing. Taking together the common infectious disorders of infancy with those nervous and diarrhoeal and respiratory diseases which have last been spoken of—an annual total of more than 100,000 deaths—we find that they are distributed in different places according to an aggregate death-rate which ranges from about 1,308 to about 9,044; that the low rate belongs as an average to three of the healthiest districts of England, and the high rate to the one unhealthiest district; that the last is not a manufacturing town; and that the causes in operation there to produce its immense infantile mortality must presumably be those unwholesome conditions of dwelling which local authorities, under the Nuisances Removal Act and other sanitary laws, are specially empowered to counteract.

Summary of Results.—I have now spoken of those kinds of disease which, because of their immense fatality, deserve especial consideration. I have referred to facts which are notorious as to the causation of such diseases. In the subjoined figures you can read at a glance that vast range of their local death-rates which Dr. Greenhow has the merit of having made evident for public information.

1. *Annual death-rates, by diseases which are either wholly or almost wholly preventable under good sanitary arrangements, have ranged in different districts as follows:*

Cholera.	Diarrhoea and Dysentery.	Continued Fever.	Small-pox.
From nothing to 403	From 4 to 345	From 21 to 209	From nothing to 146

2. *Annual death-rates, by diseases which to some considerable extent are inevitable, but of which the severity or the frequency may be controlled by good sanitary arrangements, have ranged in different districts as follows:*

Tubercular Phthisis in Women.	Non-tubercular Lung-diseases in Men.	Common Infec- tious Disorders of Childhood.	Convulsive Disorders of Childhood.	Pulmonary Affections of Childhood.
From 229 to 588	From 66 to 869	From 694 to 2,149	From 280 to 3,832	From 213 to 2,897

And let me beg leave again to bring before you the several totals of death which year by year are thus unequally distributed. Looking at the last eight or nine years for which materials are before me, I find that the annual average of deaths by the three diarrhoeal diseases has amounted to

26,388; by fevers (typhus, typhoid, infantile, and remittent) to 18,616; by small-pox, to 4,587; by tubercular diseases (male and female, at all ages) to 57,982; by non-tubercular respiratory diseases (male and female, at all ages) to 50,273, whereof 23,020 have belonged to childhood; by the common infectious disorders, to more than 32,000; by the nervous disorders of childhood, to nearly 37,000. Here altogether are 227,000 deaths, annually distributed with the utmost inequality. After reasonably estimating the degrees in which they severally are preventable, it can no longer seem so difficult to make a very large beginning towards striking off the annual 100,000 deaths against which the registrar-general protests as deaths of artificial production. Many others remain; but, after speaking of preventable deaths which may be counted by tens of thousands, it seems almost trivial to dwell on diseases which annually kill but a few thousands among them. Yet some of them deserve notice.

Ague.—Ague does not overtly kill even 200 a year. Yet if one may judge by the experience of the Peterborough Hospital (where out of 1,394 cases during nine years only one proved fatal) the injured are immensely numerous in proportion to the directly killed. And beyond all doubt, the deaths are much less infrequent than they seem; for when the malarious influence destroys life in this climate, almost always it is by secondary results; and the deaths which thus occur are registered, not as ague-deaths, but as due to dropsy, or liver-disease, or other abdominal affection. It needs not now to be shown that ague is preventable. Before the time of the great fire of London—or let me rather say, before the better draining and paving which attended the reconstruction of London—endemic ague was among the most prevalent and most fatal diseases of the metropolis. Even a century ago, according to Dr. Fothergill, it still had a considerable prevalence. Now it is scarcely (if at all) known to us, except as imported from the undrained marsh-districts of other parts of the kingdom, where appropriate means have not hitherto been employed for its extinction.

Purpura and *Scurvy* annually kill from 200 to 300 persons. In their origin and nature these diseases are different; and it is therefore to be wished that they could have been separately enumerated. Scurvy, it is well known, is but a modified starvation, dependent on the absence of vegetable food. It was this disease which used to decimate our navy and render long sea-voyages almost impossible. It was mainly by scurvy that Anson, in his celebrated voyage of 1740-2, lost within the first ten months nearly two-thirds of his crew, and during the remaining period about half of the survivors. It was against scurvy that Cook had attained his great success, when, in 1775, after three years' absence, he brought back a healthy crew, which, out of 112 men, had lost only one by disease. And the perfect preventability of scurvy is well shown in the experience of our navy; from which, even in the year 1780, Haslar Hospital received as many as 1,457 cases; and in which at present the disease is never seen. Undoubtedly, therefore, it is by neglect of sanitary precautions, and through punishable disobedience to the law, that scurvy to a considerable extent still prevails in our mercantile marine, and that so many cases of great severity are still received into civil hospitals situated in the neighbourhood of our docks. In land-life the common consumption of the potato serves so completely to prevent scurvy, that poverty perhaps never becomes an occasion of the disease, except when the potato-crop has failed. Voluntary abstinence from vegetable diet is sometimes, but very rarely, the circumstance to which an

individual case of scurvy on shore may be ascribed. But the main source of such scurvy as still exists in England is no doubt maritime, and depends on the absence of due provision for the diet of crews during long voyages. The "Weekly Return of new cases of sickness in the public institutions of the metropolis," communicated to the Board of Health by the Association of Officers of Health, has occasionally during the last few months quoted striking facts of this kind from the experience of the hospital ship *Dreadnought*.

Puerperal Fever is registered as killing about 1,500 mothers a year. Probably other fatal cases of the disease are included in the list of about 3,000 women annually described as dying of peritonitis and of childbirth. Statistically, the number is not large. But every one must wish it were less; for death rarely falls with more individual heaviness than when it comes in this form to rob the household of a mother in her happiest and hopefulmost moment. And the death strikes every observer so essentially in the light of an accident, that it makes more impression of suddenness and evitability than almost any death not actually by violence. Fortunately the disease is in a very unusual degree preventable; for the experience of Lying-in Hospitals enables us quite confidently to class it among the putrid infections. Its propagation has in too many instances been traced to personal agencies which, now that they are understood, it would be criminal not to guard against; and its ordinary origin stands in intimate relation to sanitary faults which never ought to surround either the healthy or the sick.

That women may receive the infection of puerperal fever at the hands of those who previously have been in attendance on cases of erysipelas, is now among the certainties of medicine. It has been established by a large amount of very fatal experience. And that the same contagion may arise in ordinary *post-mortem* putridity, and be propagated from this source, is likewise certain. Immense mortality from puerperal fever in one division of the Vienna Lying-in Hospital, varying from about a fourth to about a ninth part of all the deliveries which took place there, was believed by Dr. Semelweiss, the head of the department, to depend on an infection of which "the real source was to be found in the hands of the medical men in attendance contaminated with cadaveric poison." The other division of the hospital (reserved for the practical instruction of midwives, whose training does not require them to be brought into contact with dead bodies) suffered only about a tenth part as much as the first; and this was the more noticeable as the second division was inferior to the first in the size and airiness of its wards. Dr. Semelweiss, acting upon his supposition as to the cause of the disease, required that the male attendants of the first division should, as much as possible, avoid contact with cadaveric matter; that after such contact they should never make a vaginal examination till the following day; and that, besides very thoroughly cleansing their hands, they should systematically disinfect them with a solution of chlorine. The latter precaution was not introduced till some months after the more general precautions had been adopted. The result of these measures was, that the mortality of the first division at once fell to the usual average of the second division. In 1846, the death-rate per cent. had been 13.66; in 1847, it was 5.2; in 1848, it was 1.33.

Erysipelas by name kills about 2,000 a year, and under other names, perhaps many more. It has two forms not distinguished in the registers, and probably not essentially different; whereof one particularly belongs to

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surgical practice, as an occasional very serious complication of wounds. The poison of this traumatic erysipelas seems to be identical with that of puerperal fever. Intimately associated with the atmosphere which breeds it, are other calamitous influences, which are apt to prevail with erysipelas epidemically in the wards of ill-kept hospitals, threatening every open wound of every patient who lies there, arresting the vital processes of repair, and putrefying its material, infecting the whole blood with mischief propagated from the part, converting slight injuries into grave dangers, and often defeating the success of the best-performed surgical operations. The experience of the old Hôtel Dieu (*maison de Dieu, porte du ciel*) was in this respect most lamentable: and no wonder—when Howard used to see “five or six in one bed, and some of them dying”—that “hardly any acute cases, childbed cases, or capital operations survived,” or that the operation of trepanning was laid aside as one which for fifty years had never been known to succeed. The Scutari Hospitals, during the earlier part of the Crimean war, illustrated a similiar connection of cause and effect, under circumstances to which I have already adverted; and here, as in the Hôtel Dieu and in innumerable other instances, the evil ceased under a system of stricter cleanliness, improved ventilation, and diminished crowding. The old hospital ship *Dreadnought* had acquired a very evil reputation for the prevalence of these infections; dependent, no doubt, in part on the natural ill-adaptedness of a ship to the purposes of a hospital; but probably also in part dependent on organic contamination still lingering in the wooden walls of the wards. Early last year another more commodious ship was substituted for the *Dreadnought*; and Mr. Tudor, the resident surgeon, informs me that, whereas in the two years preceding that change 9 out of 22 amputations had terminated fatally, only 1 amputation had proved fatal out of 16 performed in the year following the change; and that, whereas formerly erysipelas and hospital-gangrene were so common and so spreading as to have let him see there at one time as many as 18 cases of hospital-gangrene, he has now scarcely seen erysipelas, except in patients admitted with it, from whom, as a rule, it no longer spreads to other inmates of the ward.

Erysipelatous Fever.—Erysipelas of the kind which is not associated with wounds has, in some respects, more affinity to the eruptive fevers than to the above-mentioned traumatic diseases, and might therefore conveniently be called by the distinctive name of erysipelatous fever. But the circumstances under which it arises have appeared to me so often to be circumstances of local unwholesomeness, that I am disposed to believe there is little essential difference between this form, which begins as a febrile attack, and the other form, which begins as a local infection; and as the latter is quite unquestionably due to defective sanitary conditions, so I have strong suspicion that the former will be found a very infrequent disease when the causes of other endemic contagions have become less rife.

Insanity, according to the registers, causes only 500 deaths per annum; but of 7,650 deaths annually attributed to paralysis, and 1,840 annually attributed to epilepsy, many, no doubt, are of insane patients. It deserves attention that, so far as very imperfect statistics can determine the matter, insanity appears to be increasing in this country. In the last (eleventh) report of the Commissioners in Lunacy it is mentioned that in 1852 the number of pauper lunatics and idiots was returned by the Poor Law Board as 21,158; but in 1857, as 27,693. No disease has less immediate connection than insanity with such exterior influences as are under the control

of local sanitary authorities; but there is not an absence of indirect connection. The mental activity which belongs to eager competition in a crowded and ambitious country is a frequent cause of cerebral disorder to persons who from parentage or other circumstances are predisposed to it; and this special influence is, of course, likely to develop itself in proportion as the particular period is fraught with occasions of excitement and fatigue. But what deserves here to be borne in mind, just as in reference to the development of scrofulous and tubercular disease, is the great power of all depressing circumstances to co-operate with the special cause. Those whom privation or disease has recently exhausted, or whose health is chronically deteriorated by unwholesome conditions of occupation or residence, succumb to the operation of mental causes which the brain of the healthy body could bear without injury. It is under such circumstances that many of our labouring classes suffer their first access of mental derangement; and I have every reason to believe that if we could obtain accurate statistics of the local distribution of insanity, we should find its excesses among those parts of the adult population which suffer the largest preventable mortality from consumption and its kindred disorders.

Violence, in more than 14,000 annual instances, is the registered cause of death. Generally, on this class of premature deaths, I have not yet been able to make my inquiries with sufficient minuteness to learn what prospect there may be of lessening their large annual amount, and can only venture to name some among them which to my present knowledge seem susceptible of reduction. In about 422 of the above cases fatal poisoning was discovered. To what further extent it may have operated without discovery, and to what extent the adulterations of food and drugs have been hurtful to life, are questions which, at present, I have no means of solving. The law (14 & 15 Vict. c. 13) which forbids arsenic to be sold otherwise than coloured, and except with full registration of the sale, and in presence of a witness known to both buyer and vender, has probably diminished the felonious uses of that drug; and an extension of the principle of that Act to the regulation of the sale of all such poisons as are commonly used for criminal purposes, would greatly diminish the present almost unrestricted facilities for clandestine homicide.

In more than 5,000 cases, wounds, fractures, and contusions are specified as having been the causes of death; some of them homicidal, but the very large majority accidental; and of the latter, some self-inflicted by the sufferers, while many arose in the carelessness of others. It is specially the last of these classes which already has been reduced, and probably admits of still further reduction. Whatever acts of legislation, or whatever decisions from the bench, tend to increase or fix the responsibility of persons for accidentally injurious consequences of their neglectful acts or omissions, must operate in this direction; and it seems certain that the "Act (9 & 10 Vict. c. 93) for compensating the families of persons killed by accident" has herein been of essential service. The Factory Act (7 & 8 Vict. c. 15) and the Act for the inspection of Coal Mines (13 & 14 Vict. c. 100) have no doubt greatly reduced the frequency of serious accidents in both those branches of industry by increasing the responsibility of employers. Yet in 1854 the coal-miners were represented to be still losing 1,000 lives per annum from accidents of a preventible kind.

Among the 14,000 lives annually lost by violence are counted more than 1,800 cases where children are burnt or scalded to death. These numerous

deaths by fire, and other still more numerous injuries which are not fatal, are referable to the domestic habits of parents; occurring almost exclusively among the poorer classes, where children cannot possibly be tended with the same vigilance as among the rich. Probably a large share of such casualties arises during the absence of mothers engaged in branches of industry which take them from home; and it seems likely that the evil would diminish with the development of well-conducted *crèches* and infant schools, which, on other accounts, are so very greatly to be desired for the infant population of places where mothers are engaged in manufactures and other non-domestic industry.

About 314 among the violent deaths are annually attributed to intemperance. Unfortunately that number expresses only a trace of the mischief which is done to human life by the abuse of spirituous liquors. But it opens the very difficult question of preventable deaths arising in moral causes; and I should be dealing uncandidly with the subject, if I refrained from stating that oftentimes these are real insanitary influences, rendering it a greatly more difficult task to remove such evils as are simply physical. Not only do intemperance and profligacy create diseases which, except for them, would have no existence, but they act immensely in aggravation of the endemic causes of disease, and add to what is horrid and deadly in the unwholesomest haunts of our large cities. Yet, that justice may be done, it is well to remember that such physical and such moral conditions act and re-act on one another—that the local circumstances which are hostile to health are likewise hostile to moral and intellectual education. It has been my duty to make myself very intimately acquainted with places respecting which it may with truth be said, that vice, and ignorance, and brutality are among their active causes of disease. But from my first moment of personal intimacy with such places till now, my assurance has grown stronger and stronger, that it is much more difficult than the wealthy and powerful can imagine, for those who are born and bred in courts which are the nurseries of cholera, typhus, and scrofula, to emerge from their wretched childhood otherwise than vicious, and ignorant, and brutal. The same soil nurtures both growths of misery. And when social reformers jointly address themselves to these afflicting scenes, it is no easy problem to determine whether, by their indirect co-operation, the schoolmaster and the minister of religion do more for the bodily health, or the sanitary improver more for the progress of education and for the lessening of crime.

Dr. Simon concluded with recommending that all cases of high special death-rates should be thoroughly investigated, and that the local public and the general public, the Government and the legislature, should have before them the precise facts of each case where a preventable or partly preventable disease prevails to great excess in any particular district.

ON THE DIFFERENT PREVALENCE OF CERTAIN DISEASES IN DIFFERENT DISTRICTS OF ENGLAND AND WALES. BY E. HEADLAM GREENHOW, M.D.

The state of the public health varies greatly in different places. In some it is comparatively good, in others exceedingly bad, and these variations are usually only local, the condition of the public health often differing much in adjoining districts: for example, the public health of St. Saviour's,

Southwark, is worse than the public health of the adjoining parish of St. George-the-Martyr; and the public health of Chelsea is very indifferent, whilst that of the adjoining parishes of St. George, Hanover Square, and Kensington is comparatively good. The salubrity or insalubrity of a place is estimated by comparing the proportion of persons that annually die out of a certain number of the inhabitants with the number of deaths out of the like number of the living in some other place adopted as a standard of comparison. For the sake of brevity, the proportionate numbers in different places have been called death-rates, a term proposed to be used in this paper. Thus the deaths of the inhabitants of St. Saviour's annually amount to 33 in each 1,000 persons of both sexes and of all ages. The death-rate of St. Saviour's is therefore 33 in the 1,000. The death-rate of St. George-the-Martyr is 30; that is to say, out of each 1,000 of the living 30 persons annually die. The death-rate of Chelsea is 26; that of Kensington, on the one side of it, being only 19; and that of St. George's, Hanover Square, on the other side of it, 18 in the 1,000. These numbers, which are quoted from the Registrar-General's sixteenth annual report, represent the mortality not merely of a single year, but of the ten years 1841-50. It is, indeed, evident that no just comparison could be formed from the experience of a single year. The temporary prevalence of a contagious disease, like scarlet fever, small-pox, or typhus, might unduly augment the mortality of one district as compared with another in which no similar disease had prevailed. So, likewise, a visitation of cholera or of influenza, or the occurrence of a hot summer giving rise to an increased mortality from diarrhoea, dysentery, or malarious disease, or of an unusually cold winter proving fatal to many of the ailing, whose lives might otherwise have been indefinitely prolonged, would frequently prevent the mortality of a single year from affording a fair indication of the ordinary mortality. Such discrepancies are avoided by estimating the average annual mortality for a sufficiently long series of years, as has been done in the examples quoted from the Registrar-General; for the mortality of healthy and unhealthy seasons is thereby balanced. The highest death-rate in the kingdom exists in Liverpool, the lowest in Glendale and Rothbury in Northumberland, and Eastbourne in Sussex. Excluding the year 1847, when the Irish famine and fever greatly aggravated the number of deaths in Liverpool, the average annual death-rate of Liverpool has been 36 in each 1,000 inhabitants of all ages and both sexes. The people of the three healthy places only die at the rate of 15 in the 1,000 annually.

England and Wales have been divided into 623 districts, for the registration of births, marriages, and deaths. Some of these districts consist of towns only; others are altogether of a rural character. In other cases, whilst a town forms the nucleus or centre, a considerable portion of the surrounding country is likewise comprised within the limits of the registration district. Glendale and Rothbury in Northumberland, and Reeth in Yorkshire, are examples of purely rural registration districts. Leeds, Liverpool, and Hull, are districts altogether of the urban character. York, Ripon, and Tynemouth, are registration districts containing the towns of the same names, but each comprising also a considerable rural district. Several of the 623 districts approach to the insalubrity of Liverpool; only a few come near the healthfulness of Glendale, Rothbury, and Eastbourne. The average annual death-rate for the whole of England and Wales is 23 in the 1,000. This average is exceeded in 102 districts. The local mor-

tality coincides with the general mortality in 27 districts. The death-rate falls below the general average in no less than 494 districts.

The mortality of a very few great towns amounts to less than 25 in the 1,000 annually. In most of them it is even higher. The average annual death-loss exceeds 25 in the 1,000 in not less than 96 town districts, and in 38 of these it is from 28 to 36 in each 1,000 inhabitants. The average annual mortality does not exceed 17 in each 1,000 persons in 64 districts. Of course, the 3 healthy places already mentioned, as well as 14 districts in which the average annual mortality is at the rate of 16 in the 1,000 are included in the 64 places here referred to. These remarkable differences of death-rate have been continually quoted in support of the many efforts made to ameliorate the public health during the last 20 years. And, indeed, the fact that only 15 or 16 persons out of each 1,000 of the inhabitants of certain districts annually die, whilst in other places the proportion rises to double or more than double this amount, affords a sufficient reason for investigating the causes of such striking differences and for endeavouring to effect their removal. To say nothing of the great sacrifice of human life and the increase of human suffering in places which have a high death-rate, the loss entailed on the community by excessive sickness, the constant and necessary attendant of a high mortality, and by the deaths of parents prematurely cut off, leaving families to be maintained at the public charge, renders such investigations necessary on economical grounds.

As a rule, but a rule that has many remarkable exceptions, the highest rates of mortality occur in towns; the lowest in country places. It has hence been supposed that high death-rates are entirely caused by certain conditions incidental to the aggregation of people in towns, and from which the inhabitants of rural places are comparatively free. The collection of organic and other refuse in the vicinity of human habitations, the close aggregation of buildings, the overcrowding of houses, and an imperfect or an impure water supply, have been almost exclusively considered as the main conditions that have an injurious influence on the public health. Hence legislation and sanitary efforts to improve the public health have had almost exclusive reference to the removal of these very great and evident evils. The drainage and cleansing of towns, the superintendence of buildings, the inspection of dwellings, the regulation of houses used for common lodging-houses, and the provision of a pure and abundant water supply, have hitherto been the beginning and the end of all sanitary exertions. The insalubrity of districts has invariably been attributed to one set of causes. One set of remedies has been empirically recommended in every case.

Dr. Greenhow then proceeded to detail the want of definite information on the causes of excessive mortality; the erroneous notions which obtained that zymotic diseases are the chief causes of excessive mortality, and the reasons for his undertaking the investigation on the subject, in consequence of his appointment as lecturer on public health in St. Thomas's Hospital.

The several diseases are arranged in ten groups; namely:—A. Pulmonary Affections. B. Contagious diseases. C. Alvine Flux. D. Typhus and Erysipelas. E. Croup, Influenza, and Ague. F. Strumous Diseases. G. Nervous Diseases of Children. H. Apoplexy and Paralysis. I. Rheumatic Fever and Rheumatism. K. Carbuncle and Phlegmon.

A. PULMONARY AFFECTIONS.

This class includes phthisis and the several diseases, viz., laryngitis, bronchitis, pleurisy, pneumonia, asthma, and the diseases of uncertain character registered under the vague term "Disease of Lungs, &c." The average annual mortality from pulmonary affections in England and Wales during the seven years 1848-54 was in the proportion of 569 per 100,000 males of all ages, and 535 per 100,000 females. Of course, both healthy and unhealthy districts are included in the calculation. This general average is exceeded in three of the great divisions into which the country has been subdivided for registration purposes—viz., in London, North Western Counties, and West Midland Counties. The mortality falls below the general average in the eight remaining divisions, viz., Yorkshire, Monmouthshire and Wales, South Western Counties, South Eastern Counties, Eastern Counties, South Midland Counties, Northern Counties, North Midland Counties.

There is no uniform relation between the male and female death-rates. The male death-rate is higher than the female in the country generally; but the excess is not large, for if the male death-rate be considered as 100, the female death-rate would be 94. In the London division, which presents the highest male death-rate, the excess of the male death-loss from pulmonary affections over the death-loss of females is in the proportion of 100 to 78.

Whilst the deaths from pulmonary affections form nearly one-fourth of the gross mortality in England and Wales, there are districts in which the proportion is as low as a seventh or an eighth; and, exclusive of the exceptional mining districts, Redruth, Reeth, and Alston, others in which it exceeds a fourth of the entire death-loss. Whilst only 12 deaths in each 100 are referable to affections of the chest in Glendale, upwards of 24 out of every 100 deaths are produced by pulmonary diseases in Manchester, Wollstanton, and Liverpool. The proportion is even higher in Birmingham and Bristol. That these proportions bear no direct relation to the general death-rate is clear, because, whilst the average annual death-rates of Glendale, Haltwhistle, and New Forest, are—Glendale, 15; Haltwhistle, 16; and New Forest, 17 in each 1,000 persons, the mortality from pulmonary affections forms 12 per cent. of the gross mortality in Glendale, 18 per cent. in Haltwhistle, and 23 per cent. in New Forest. The inhabitants of Hull perish at the rate of 30 in each 1,000 annually, but of this number only 16 per cent. die of pulmonary diseases. In Wolverhampton, where the general death-loss is a little below that of Hull, upwards of 20 per cent. of all the deaths are produced by pulmonary affections. In Leeds, the general death-loss of which is rather higher than the general death-loss of Hull, 22 per cent. of all who die perish from pulmonary diseases.

It is thus evident that we must inquire further before we can hope to refer the remarkable variations in the rates of death from pulmonary affections in different districts to their true causes. The striking variations that exist in the proportionate mortality of the sexes who are domiciled in the same manner and partake of the same kind of food rather indicates the existence of causes to which males and females are exposed in different degrees. And in fact, men and women, and to a more limited extent boys and girls, even when living in the same house, and partaking of the same diet, are frequently exposed to noxious influences of dissimilar character. Men

usually spend a considerable portion of the day from home, and thus breathe, for at least several hours daily, an atmosphere often very different in respect of purity from that inhaled by the other members of their family. The man's occupation may be active or sedentary, carried on in the dark mine underground, in a stifling workshop rendered unwholesome by a high artificial temperature, or the crowding of too many operatives into a limited space, in the dusty atmosphere of a factory, or in the pure air of heaven. There are great varieties in all these respects; some open-air employments, such as those in which quarrymen are engaged, are attended by the inhalation of an atmosphere dangerous to health. A well-ventilated coal mine, or a well-ordered factory or workshop, may, and frequently does, possess a perfectly pure and wholesome atmosphere. Again, the workman may be liable to inhale noxious vapours or mechanical particles which irritate the delicate pulmonary mucous membrane, and induce disease, which sooner or later proves fatal, unless the employment be abandoned; or he may be exposed to cold and damp; or to an elevated temperature and too dry an atmosphere; one or more of which circumstances may most seriously impair his health, that of his family remaining uninjured. The wife and younger children on the other hand, bear the full brunt of any home defects. Being less absent than her husband, the wife suffers proportionably more than him if their residence be unhealthy, either from defective construction or its location in an unhealthy neighbourhood. Neither are women always exempt from certain causes of pulmonary disease incidental to particular industrial pursuits. Women are extensively employed in factories in most manufacturing towns. They are also frequently engaged in shoe-making, nail-making, or as manufacturers of needles, lace, gloves, or straw plait. Sometimes, although rarely, they are miners. Even needle-work, which is especially a female occupation, as now conducted in the metropolis and other large towns, is a most frequent cause of illness and death to the unfortunate needle-women.

It might, *à priori*, have been expected that these several circumstances would have considerable influence over the comparative mortality from pulmonary affections in the sexes, and in places of different industrial character. And, in fact, the influence of industrial employment on the liability of a population to suffer from pulmonary diseases is very clearly brought out by my inquiry. For this purpose it will be convenient to divide the districts into classes, each representing a particular form of industrial employment. It must not, however, be forgotten that, on the one hand, there are considerable sections of every community that are free from the influence of the prevailing occupation, and, on the other, that there are certain occupations which are pursued everywhere, although it is true the proportion of persons engaged in them varies somewhat in different places. Thus, among the several agricultural districts that are comprised in my investigation, the proportion of adult men engaged in agriculture rarely exceeds 50 per cent. of the adult male population; in only five districts is it above 60, and in Holsworthy alone does it attain 70 per cent. In the single mining district of Alston, the miners form 59 per cent. of the adult male population; in Redruth, only 54 per cent.; and in Easington, only 50 per cent. of the men are employed in the mines. At Merthyr Tydfil and Abergavenny, where metal manufactures are combined with mining, the proportion of men employed in the three occupations, coal mining, iron mining, and iron manufacture, in each place, forms less than 55 per cent. of the adult male

population. In Sheffield and Ecclesall Bierlow, which are essentially places of metallic manufacture, the adult males engaged in the various kinds of metal manufacture carried on in those districts amounts to only 41 per cent. of the adult men in Sheffield, and to 44 per cent. in Ecclesall. In none of the towns that are the most exclusively devoted to textile manufactures does the proportion of adult males, employed in the special manufacture of the place, amount to 50 per cent. of the resident adult male population. The remainder of the adult men in each place are employed in pursuits which minister to the necessities or the luxuries of the prevalent class. This circumstance of course masks, to a certain extent, the influence of its peculiar form of industry upon the public health of the district, but in so doing, it does not invalidate certain conclusions that evidently spring from the facts elicited by this inquiry.

The following divisions comprise the chief industrial occupations of the several districts, namely:—1. Agriculture. 2. Commerce and Maritime Pursuits. 3. Mining. 4. Manufacture of Metals. 5. Manufacture of Earthenware. 6. Manufacture of Textile Fabrics. 7. Manufacture of Shoes.

1. AGRICULTURE.

The agricultural districts consist (a) of purely rural places, as Glendale, Bootle, Cranbrook, and Hendon; (b), of districts which contain small towns, the inhabitants of which are employed either in agricultural pursuits, or in occupations which minister to the requirements of an agricultural population, as Whittlesey, Spalding, Lewes, and Farnham; and (c), of districts, sometimes exclusively rural, sometimes partially urban, the female population of which follow some special industrial employment, as the manufacture of lace, gloves, straw plait, or straw bonnets, as Newport Pagnell, Hemel Hempstead, and Luton.

(a.) In the rural places, the death-loss from pulmonary affections in purely agricultural districts—that is, in places where there is no town—and agriculture is the principal occupation of the inhabitants, varies from the rate of 216 per 100,000 persons in Glendale, to that of 473 per 100,000 persons in New Forest. The pulmonary death-rate of England and Wales, without regard to age or sex, is 552; therefore, the death-rate from this class of complaints in the several country places is considerably below that of the country at large.

(b.) In the ten urban agricultural districts the mean pulmonary mortality varies from 384 per 100,000 persons of all ages and both sexes in Bideford to 566 in Saffron Walden.

(c.) There are, however, certain agricultural districts, where the male is mainly employed in the cultivation of the earth, but the females are engaged in manufactures special to each place. In these districts, a considerable proportion of the women are engaged in special manufactures, and there the female mortality is higher than the male. The female exceeds the male death-rate most largely in the four lace-making districts, Newport Pagnell, Bedford, Towcester, and Wycombe, in the order in which they are here written; and save that the proportion of women employed in the manufacture of lace in Bedford and Towcester is about the same, the excess of the female death-rate in each place agrees almost exactly with the proportion of females engaged in this form of industry. With the exception of Wycombe, where rather more than a tenth of the men are employed in carpentry, the male inhabitants of these places are chiefly employed in

agricultural operations. Of the four lace-making districts, the rate of mortality is highest in Towcester, where the population is least dense, and the pauperism moderate; lowest in Bedford, where the proportion of urban residents is largest.

2. COMMERCE, AND MARITIME PURSUITS.

Under this head are comprised the most purely urban districts in the kingdom. Including London, the mortality of twelve such districts has been investigated. From 95 to 100 per cent. of the population of all these places reside in towns, the inhabitants of which are usually both closely aggregated on the surface of the soil, and also more closely crowded within their dwellings, than is the case in smaller towns and rural places. Such towns perhaps always likewise contain a large quantity of what is termed tenemented property, that is, houses originally constructed for the occupation of single families, but which, from change of circumstances, having ceased to become desirable residences for their original occupants, are subdivided and let out to several families, often to as many families as there are separate rooms. It is scarcely necessary to say that a large proportion of such property is very ill adapted for the purpose to which it has been converted, and that some of the greatest evils of town life to the working-classes arise from their being compelled to reside in such habitations. The proportion of men employed in the cultivation of the earth is exceedingly small in all the twelve places. Ipswich, where 8 per cent., and West Derby, where nearly 9 per cent. of the men are engaged in agriculture, possess by far the largest proportion of agricultural labourers. These commercial and maritime towns, therefore, present city life in its intensest form; and it is chiefly on that account, and because they possess no very definite industrial character, that they have been selected for investigation. Three of the towns are at once commercial and maritime; namely, Gravesend, Liverpool, and Hull. London, Bristol, and Newcastle-on-Tyne are essentially commercial cities. Ipswich and West Derby are less densely peopled than the others, and are neither decidedly maritime nor exclusively commercial in character. Portsea, Plymouth, East Stonehouse, and Stoke Damerel, the two latter of which form the parliamentary borough of Devonport, are naval and military stations.

The death-rates from pulmonary affection in these towns were as follows:—Hull, males per 100,000, 589; females, 525. Plymouth, males, 657; females, 569. Portsea Island, males, 678; females, 558. Gravesend, males, 684; females, 516. Newcastle-on-Tyne, males, 691; females, 594. Ipswich, males, 691; females, 615; Stoke Damerel, males, 704; females, 525. West Derby, males, 731; females, 632. London, males, 758; females, 593. East Stonehouse, males, 973; females, 527. Bristol, males, 979; females, 742. Liverpool, males, 1,062; females, 939. England and Wales, males, 569; females, 535.

In his 16th Annual Report (p. 146), the Registrar-General mentions that the proportion of deaths in East Stonehouse is raised from 26 to 29 in each 1,000 inhabitants when the deaths of persons in the Royal Naval Hospital are included in the calculation. They are included in the present calculation; and no doubt it is for this reason that the male death-rate from pulmonary affections in East Stonehouse is so immensely higher than that of females. The case is altogether exceptional; and, but that it illustrates the necessity for taking every possible cause of disturbance into account in

such calculations as the present, might as well have been omitted from the investigation. Liverpool, Bristol, and London are the densest towns; they are also those in which the mortality is highest. But that the pulmonary mortality is not in exact accordance either with the superficial density of the population, the closeness of its distribution in houses, or the amount of pauperism, is clear from the circumstance that Plymouth, Hull, Newcastle-on-Tyne, and Portsea Island sustain a smaller proportionate pulmonary death-loss than Ipswich, which is smaller, less densely peopled, and has a smaller average number of persons to each house.

3. MINING.

There is no class of places in which the influence of occupation on health is more powerful or so evident as in some of the mining districts. Mining operations are frequently pursued in situations naturally salubrious, and generally more or less removed from great cities. In many cases the little centres of population that spring up in mining districts are exclusively inhabited by miners and their families, and the classes who minister to the wants of the mining population. Hence the influence of the prevailing occupation on the health of those engaged in it is proportionably evident. Females are rarely employed in mining; the total number so employed in the whole kingdom is most insignificant, and does not, for every form of mining, amount to 11,000. The influence of certain kinds of mining on the health of miners is therefore rendered additionally evident by the difference in the male and female death-rates of the same places, and the direct relation that exists between this difference and the proportion of men employed in the mines. The health of the mining districts will be most conveniently considered under four heads; namely:—*a.* Lead mining; *b.* Tin and copper mining; *c.* Coal mining; and *d.* Mixed coal and iron mining.

(*a.*) *Lead Mining.*—This kind of mining appears to be very injurious to health. The differences of pulmonary death-rate in the sexes are well marked, and correspond pretty nearly to the proportion of men engaged in mining. The male death-rate from pulmonary affections is considerably higher than the female in each of the six districts, and the excess is greatest in the purely lead-mining districts of Reeth and Alston, where the majority of the men are lead-miners. The female mortality is also higher in the districts of Aberystwith, Weardale, Holywell, Reeth, and Alston, than in several other districts equally rural, and where, as in these lead-mining districts, the females follow no special occupation. For example, the female death-loss from pulmonary diseases in the registration district of Richmond in Yorkshire, which includes the town of the same name, and is contiguous with the rural and lead-mining district of Reeth, is at the rate of 451 per 100,000 females of all ages; that of Reeth is 528. Alston and Weardale are adjoining districts. On the northern border of Alston lies the district of Haltwhistle, which is conterminous with the wide tract of country comprised in the registration districts of Bellingham, Rothbury, and Glendale, to which I have already had occasion more than once to refer as one of the healthiest portions of England. The female pulmonary death-rates of Alston and Weardale per 100,000 females of all ages, are 494 in the former and 497 in the latter district. The female pulmonary death-rate of Haltwhistle is only 399 per 100,000. The male pulmonary death-rate in each of these places being considered as 100, the female pulmonary death-rates would be 56·3 in Alston, and 72·5 in Reeth; those of Richmond and Halt-

whistle, where, as in most healthy places, the pulmonary death-rates of females are higher than those of males, would be 113 in the former, and 121·6 in the latter.

(b.) *Tin and Copper Mining.*—Tin and copper are, next to lead mining, the most pernicious forms of mining. Of the three districts that have been selected, Penzance is almost exclusively a tin-mining district, Redruth is chiefly a copper-mining district, and Liskeard, a mixed district in which tin, copper, and lead are all worked. About one-third of the miners of Liskeard are lead miners. Here also the male exceed the female death-rates from pulmonary affections, and very nearly in accordance with the proportion of men employed in mining. The female death-rate of Redruth is slightly higher than that of Liskeard, and scarcely differs from that of Penzance, notwithstanding that a small number of the women of Redruth, are employed in the mines. Probably the female miners are less exposed to inhale gritty dust than the men. Redruth has a slightly smaller proportion of its men employed in mining than Alston, and a rather larger proportion than Reeth; its inhabitants are much more densely aggregated on the surface of the soil than those either of Alston or Reeth; a larger proportion of its men are engaged in agriculture than of the men of Alston, a smaller proportion than those of Reeth; but its male pulmonary death-rate, both for the whole of life and likewise for adult life, is less than either that of Reeth or Alston. The pulmonary mortality of adult women in Redruth is below the pulmonary mortality of the women of Alston and Reeth. The general state of the public health of Redruth is inferior to that of Alston. The mortality in early life especially, both from all causes and from pulmonary affections in the former, is much higher than the mortality sustained by the young population of the latter. Notwithstanding this, the influence of occupation seems well marked, for the death-rate of adult men is very nearly twice as high as the death-rate of women. Whilst the adult pulmonary death-rate of Liverpool is less than the pulmonary death-rate for the whole period of life, the adults of both sexes in Redruth, but particularly the males, perish in larger proportion than persons of all ages.

(c.) *Coal Mining.*—Whilst lead and copper and tin mining are certainly dangerous to health, coal mining appears to be at least not unhealthy. A proportion scarcely exceeding 4 per cent. of the men of Glendale are coal miners; and, exclusive of nearly 3 per cent. of quarrymen, upwards of 12 per cent. of the adult men of Haltwhistle are colliers; yet Glendale and Haltwhistle are singularly healthy districts. The only purely coal mining districts included in the inquiry are Easington and Houghton-le-Spring. There are others, like Tynemouth and Gateshead, in which coal mining forms a considerable source of industry, but in which the urban element preponderates, or in which other pursuits likewise enter largely into the occupations of the people. The male pulmonary death-rate exceeds the female in the lead, tin, and copper mining districts. The female pulmonary mortality resumes its normal position in the coal mining districts of Easington and Houghton-le-Spring. These are essentially coal mining districts.

(d.) *Mixed Coal and Iron Mining.*—There are several districts in which the population are engaged both in coal and iron mining. There are others in which coal mining is combined with iron or other manufactures. The pulmonary mortality of these places is higher than prevails in the purely coal-mining districts; lower than the mortality in the lead and copper and tin mining districts.

4. METAL MANUFACTURES.

The pernicious influence on health of certain operations connected with the manufacture of cutlery has long been recognised, and it is here rendered evident by the high pulmonary death-loss among the males of Ecclesall Bierlow and Sheffield. Among the places comprised in this inquiry, Liverpool, Leeds, Manchester, Nottingham, and Bristol, approach nearest to Sheffield, Ecclesall, Bierlow, and Birmingham, in the amount of mortality sustained by their inhabitants from pulmonary affections. Bristol is an exceptional district, remarkable for the wide diversity in the pulmonary death-rates of the sexes. Excluding Bristol, and assuming the male pulmonary death-rate in each of these towns to be 100, the female death-rates would be, Manchester 90.1; Liverpool 88.4; Leeds, 87.8; Nottingham 86.4. In Birmingham, the male death-rate being considered as 100, the female death-rate is 83.4; in Sheffield it is 79.8; in Ecclesall Bierlow it is even lower, being only 77.5. Exclusive of the metal mining districts, and of Bristol and Devonport, Sheffield and Ecclesall Bierlow present the greatest divergence of the male and female death-rates in this direction; but there are several places, as Newport Pagnell and Bedford, in which the female exceeds the male pulmonary death-rate by a little more than it falls short of the male death-rate in Ecclesall Bierlow and Sheffield. The difference, however, in the male and female pulmonary death-rates is rather less in Sheffield than in Ecclesall Bierlow. A very small proportion of the females are employed in the manufactures of Sheffield. A somewhat larger number are employed in Birmingham, where the male death-rate being 100, the female would be 83.4. The coarser kinds of metal manufacture, as iron-founding, nail-making, &c., seem to be much less injurious to health than the manufacture of cutlery. The difference in the death-rates of the sexes is less, even where, as in Gateshead and Madeley, women are not employed in the manufacture. It is therefore doubtful how far the death-rates are aggravated by this particular kind of industry in such places. Probably the workmen are comparatively much less exposed to inhale an atmosphere charged with fine mechanical particles in the coarser than in the finer kinds of metallic manufactures. It is well ascertained that the great mortality amongst cutlers and grinders arises from the irritation caused by the mechanical particles produced during the process of manufacture, and received into the lungs with the air in respiration.

5. MANUFACTURE OF EARTHENWARE.

The mortality has been investigated for Stoke-upon-Trent and Wolstanton, the two chief seats of the earthenware manufacture in this country. The pulmonary mortality is high in both places, but it is not in exact accordance with the proportion of the adult inhabitants engaged in the prevalent manufacture in each place; for whilst the death-rate of males is about equal in the two districts, and the death-rates of the two sexes are equal in Wolstanton, the female is a good deal less than the male pulmonary death-rate in Stoke-upon-Trent, and of course equally below the female death-rate in Wolstanton. Stoke-upon-Trent, in which the lower death-rate of females occurs, is by far the most densely peopled, contains the largest proportion of urban inhabitants, and has the largest per-centage both of men and women engaged in the earthenware manufacture. The comparison of these districts, therefore, is at variance

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with the opinion that preventable disease and excessive death-rates are in exact proportion to the density of a population. It is also not irrelevant to the present question to observe, that both the contagious diseases and the nervous diseases of children are fatal to a rather larger number of persons in proportion to the population in Stoke-upon-Trent; whilst diseases of the alvine flux class are more fatal in Wolstanton; and typhus is about equally fatal in both places.

It is well known that some of the operations in the manufacture of earthenware are dangerous to health; and it is believed that their influence on health varies much with the greater or less pains bestowed upon the mode of manufacture; there may also be different degrees of danger in the manufacture of different kinds or qualities of earthenware. These questions could only be satisfactorily solved by a careful investigation of the subject in the pottery district.

There are, however, unhealthy influences at work in the pottery district quite irrespectively of the particular industrial occupation. Wolstanton, where the smallest proportion of the adult population is employed in the potteries, is likewise that in which the pulmonary mortality is highest. It is true, indeed, that the excess of the pulmonary death-rate of Wolstanton over the death-rate of the neighbouring district of Stoke-upon-Trent is only obvious in the female sex:—for in dealing with proportions so large as the death-rate to 100,000 persons we must ignore altogether the insignificant difference that exists in the male death-rates;—but it is remarkable, not only because it occurs where the proportion of females employed in the special occupation of the district is smallest, but also where the urban element, whether measured by the density with which the inhabitants are aggregated together on the surface of the earth, or collected into towns, is least. And furthermore, the mortality is not only high, as in some of the places which have already been considered at the period of life when the influence of occupation is greatest, but is also proportionally high in early life, showing that whatever be its nature the cause of the high pulmonary death-rate is in operation among children below five years of age.

6. TEXTILE MANUFACTURES.

The pulmonary death-rate is usually excessive in towns where both males and females are largely employed in the manufacture of textile fabrics, but the difference in the mortality of the sexes is rarely great; sometimes it is the male, at others the female death-rate, which is in excess. The mortality has been investigated in twenty-seven textile manufacturing districts, and will be most conveniently considered in sections, arranged according to the material employed in the special manufacture of each, viz.:—*a.* Woollen manufacture; *b.* Silk manufacture; *c.* Linen and flax manufacture; *d.* Cotton manufacture; and *e.* The manufacture of hosiery and lace.

(*a.*) *Woollen Manufacture.*—With the single exception of Leeds, the mortality in the districts of woollen manufacture is rather below what prevails in the cotton and silk districts. Leeds must be viewed rather as a great town, and its inhabitants as suffering from causes apart from any prevalent occupation, because the proportion of operatives employed in the woollen manufacture is only small. More females, indeed, are employed in the manufacture of flax and linen than of woollen fabrics. Still that there is something prejudicial in some of the processes of the woollen manufacture seems not unlikely. A good deal of dust is given off in certain

stages of the manufacture, and especially in wool-combing and cloth dressing. Shoddy grinders, that is, persons employed in mills where old woollen rags are torn to pieces by a machine for the purpose of being manufactured, with the addition of new wool, into yarn, are also exposed to the inhalation of dust, and suffer in consequence from a complaint known as the shoddy fever, and characterised by headache, sickness, dryness of the throat, difficulty of breathing, cough, and expectoration. It is stated by Thackrah that the operatives in these departments are subject to chronic bronchitis and asthma. The male exceeds the female death-rate in all the places, excepting Halifax, where the female is higher than the male death-rate, and Stroud and Huddersfield, where the sexes die at an equal rate from pulmonary diseases. With the single exception of Melksham, the differences in the mortality of the sexes are inconsiderable in the chief seats of the woollen manufacture. Beyond the fact already noticed, that the adult male pulmonary death-rate is excessive in Leeds, nothing as to the influence of the woollen manufacture on health can be deduced from the present series of facts. Possibly, a minute investigation of the death-losses at the several periods of life in the other places might have furnished more positive results.

(b.) *Silk Manufacture.*—The great diversity in the death-rates of the sexes is the first circumstance in the pulmonary death-rates in several districts of silk manufacture. The male is higher than the female pulmonary death-rate in Norwich, Derby, and Coventry; the female much higher than the male pulmonary death-rate in Leek and Macclesfield. The male death-rate in each place being considered as 100, the female death-loss would be 86·6 in Coventry, 93·6 in Norwich, 99·0 in Derby, 116·3 in Macclesfield, and 119·0 in Leek. Silk and ribbon are the special manufactures of Derby, but the proportion of operatives employed in them is not large. In Norwich more men are employed in shoemaking than in the silk manufacture. The number of operatives employed in the latter form of industry is indeed too small to produce any great effect upon the general death-rate, even supposing the manufacture of silk to be prejudicial to health. Watch-making employs a considerable number of the men of Coventry, but a very large proportion both of the men and women are employed in the manufacture of ribbons and silk. Macclesfield and Leek, next to Coventry, are the two districts in which the largest proportion both of men and women are employed in the silk manufacture; they are therefore the districts in which we should expect most obviously to observe the influence of silk manufacture on health. In both places a considerable number of females are employed in the prevalent occupation, and in both places also the female considerably exceeds the male death-rate. The excess for the whole of life is nearly equal in the two districts; but it is greatest in adult life among the women of Macclesfield, where a much larger number are engaged in this industrial employment. In Leek the pulmonary death-rate of adult women exceeds that of adult men in the proportion of 82 per 100,000. In Macclesfield the pulmonary death-rate of women exceeds that of men in the proportion of 148 per 100,000. The general death-rate of children is high in both places, and the pulmonary mortality under five years of age is in accordance with the high death-rate from all causes. The high death-rates of children show the existence of unhealthy influences which affect the entire population, but the excess of the female death-rates also shows that the women are acted upon by some special cause of ill health.

(c.) *Linen and Flax Manufacture.*—There are among the selected districts none in which the linen and flax manufactures occupy so prominent a position in the industrial occupations of the people as that held by woollen manufactures in Bradford and Melksham, or by silk in Leek and Macclesfield. A small proportion of the operatives in several places, as for example, in Leeds, are employed in the flax or linen manufacture, but this is so intermixed with other industrial employments, and is in itself so small in amount, as to render it impossible to estimate the influence of the occupation on health. The injury to health sustained by operatives in flax has long been known, and arises from the same cause as the asthma of lead miners and the grinders' rot,—the inhalation of an atmosphere charged with dust, which irritates the bronchial membrane, leading to bronchitis and its consequences, emphysema and bronchial phthisis. Knaresborough and Pateley Bridge are the only two places amongst those to which the inquiry has extended in which the flax and linen manufacture forms a prominent feature in the occupations of the people, and the proportion in both is too small to afford any trustworthy conclusions. The high male pulmonary death-rate of Pateley Bridge is probably to be ascribed quite as much to the circumstance that 9·5 per cent. of the adult men are employed in lead-mining as to the fact that upwards of 15 men in each 100 are engaged in the flax manufacture. The natural position of Pateley Bridge is salubrious, it is remote from ordinary urban influences, and the people, chiefly of the agricultural class, are sparsely distributed on the surface of the earth, at the rate of only 70 to a square mile. Probably the pulmonary mortality of Pateley Bridge would have been small but for the influence exerted on its public health by the occupations of the inhabitants. This example may serve at least to show that other influences act on the public health, besides those which have been, not perhaps too prominently, but certainly too exclusively, put forward as the alpha and omega of sanitary requirements.

(d.) *Cotton Manufacture.*—The pulmonary death-rates of seven towns and of one rural district in which the cotton manufacture forms the staple industrial employment of the people have been investigated. The mortality in Garstang is moderate, but nearly two-thirds of the adult men are employed in the cultivation of the earth, and the proportion either of men or women employed in factory labour is exceedingly small. The death-rates are high in all the other places. Although it has a larger proportion of agricultural labourers, and a smaller proportion of urban residents among its population than several places where the death-rates are lower, Preston stands next to Manchester in respect of pulmonary insalubrity. The aggregation of the inhabitants of Preston upon the surface of the soil is much less dense than that of Chorlton and Salford, but the proportion of paupers in the population of Preston is greater than in either of the other places. The female exceeds the male death-rate in Wigan and Blackburn, and is scarcely appreciably less than the male death-rate in Preston. A larger per-centage of women are employed in the cotton manufacture in these three towns than in any of the others in the table. Including the women employed in the woollen and silk manufactures of Manchester, as well as those employed in the cotton manufacture, 20·5 per cent. of the adult females of Manchester are engaged in the special manufactures of that city. This is by no means a large proportion, yet on comparing the pulmonary death-rates of the sexes in Manchester with those of Birmingham and Liverpool it is found that the difference between the pulmonary death-

rates of adult men and women is less in Manchester than in either of the other towns. The difference in the death-rates of the sexes is very considerable in Liverpool, where the women follow no special occupation; less in Birmingham, where 7.1 per cent. of the adult women are employed in the manufacture of metals; least in Manchester, where 20.5 per cent. of the adult females are employed in manufactures. Assuming the adult male pulmonary death-rate of each place to be 100, the adult female death-rate of Manchester would be 85.4, of Birmingham, 77.3, and of Liverpool, 72.7. Another fact tends also to the conclusion that factory labour is unfavourable to health. It is, that whilst the pulmonary mortality of Manchester is, in both sexes, lower than the pulmonary mortality of Liverpool for the whole of life, it is higher in both sexes for adult life. Here again the influence of female occupation seems apparent, for the excess of the adult female death-rate of Manchester from pulmonary affections over that of Liverpool is very much greater than the excess of the male adult death-loss. Thus, whilst both Manchester and Liverpool sustain a high pulmonary mortality, the causes of this mortality fall with unequal severity upon the different periods of life. The exciting causes of the high pulmonary death-loss of Liverpool seem common to all ages, and therefore act with proportionably greater force upon the delicate and feeble constitution of young children. In Manchester, although probably similar causes are in operation, they are less powerful than in Liverpool, for the infantile pulmonary mortality as well as the infantile mortality from all causes, is less than in Liverpool; but other influences are also at work among the adult population of Manchester which aggravate the pulmonary mortality at a more advanced period of life.

(e.) *The Manufacture of Hosiery and Lace.*—Most of the places in which hosiery and lace are manufactured sustain a high pulmonary mortality. The female exceeds the male pulmonary death-rate in Belper, Basford, and Radford. In Hinckley, where about an equal proportion of men and women are employed in the manufacture of hosiery, the male is somewhat higher than the female death-rate. In Leicester and Nottingham the male very considerably exceeds the female death-rate. Nottingham and Leicester must in fact, as regards the proportion of deaths caused by chest affections, be classed amongst unhealthy places. The population of both places is dense, and the proportion of agricultural labourers small. There are, however, other town districts as purely urban in character in which the density of the population does not differ materially from Leicester and Nottingham, but which present a lower pulmonary death-rate. The population of Hull is rather smaller, that of Norwich somewhat larger, than the population of Nottingham and Leicester. The density of the inhabitants of Hull measured by their distribution upon the face of the earth is very considerable, but not quite so great as prevails in Nottingham, but the density both of Hull and Norwich is greater than the density of Leicester, yet the pulmonary death-rates of Hull and Norwich fall considerably below the pulmonary death-rates of Nottingham and Leicester. Coventry, Derby, Portsea, and Worcester, are other urban districts which likewise contrast favourably with Nottingham and Leicester as regards their death-rates from pulmonary affections.

7. MANUFACTURE OF SHOES.

The three districts, Wellingborough, Northampton, and Stafford, are remarkable for the large number of men employed in the manufacture of

shoes. The occupation is sedentary, and when too closely followed it is conducive to gastric affections, but it does not appear to be particularly injurious to the lungs. These three towns hold an intermediate position between the purely agricultural and the smaller manufacturing towns, as regards the proportion of mortality from pulmonary diseases. Notwithstanding that few females are employed in the special manufacture, the death-rates of the two sexes differ but little in Northampton and Stafford. In Wellingborough, where 20·2 per cent. of the women are employed in the manufacture of lace, the female very considerably exceeds the male pulmonary death-rate. I have already had occasion to remark the high female death-rates from pulmonary diseases in districts where the women are employed in the manufacture of lace, whilst the men are chiefly engaged in the cultivation of the earth. Here, then, is another example of the like kind, excepting that, instead of being engaged in the cultivation of the earth, a large per centage of the men of Wellingborough are employed in a special industrial occupation. It is, indeed, most remarkable that the female so frequently exceeds the male pulmonary death-rate in places where the women are much employed in special forms of manufacture.

B.—CONTAGIOUS DISEASES.

(a.) *Small-pox*.—The death-rate of small-pox varies in different districts from a small fraction up to 145 per 100,000 persons of both sexes and all ages. The highest proportion of deaths occurs in certain districts of the south and west of England. The male exceeds the female small-pox death-rate in England and Wales, in the several great registration divisions, and, with the exception of Worcestershire and Monmouthshire, in which the male and female death-rates are equal, in the several counties to which this investigation has extended.

Taking England and Wales as the standard of comparison, the death-rates are below the standard in five and exceed it in six of the great divisions. The male mortality is highest in London, but the mean mortality in both sexes is highest in the south-western counties. The lowest mortality is presented by the eastern counties, where the small-pox death-rate is very nearly 50 per cent. below the small-pox death-rate of England and Wales.

The mortality in the counties varies to an even greater extent than that of the larger divisions. The death-rates of Staffordshire, Durham, and Cornwall, from small-pox, are more than four times as high as the death-rate of Lincolnshire. Lancashire, which among the counties presents the highest general death-rate, has a lower small-pox death-rate than either Cambridgeshire, Cumberland, North Wales, or Cornwall, in each of which the general death-rate is considerably lower than the general death-rate of Lancashire. The mortality in some of the registration districts is exceedingly small, in several it is very large.

The male death-loss during the seven years was higher in proportion to the relative numbers of the two sexes resident in each place in 79 districts; the female was highest in 21 districts. It is, perhaps, not unimportant to note than in 10 of the districts in which the female exceeds the male mortality from small-pox, the female are also higher than the male death-rates from pulmonary affections. Of the 11 remaining districts, several are places in which the mortality either was remarkably small or was chiefly limited to one or two years. It may, therefore, be inferred that, excepting under

peculiar circumstances, small-pox is normally more fatal to males than to females.

Of all diseases, small-pox is perhaps that the mortality of which is the most certainly under the control of art. In the practice of vaccination we possess a means of prevention, the universal employment of which might indeed fail altogether to extirpate small-pox, but would at least, as has been well said, "render deaths by small-pox among the rarest entries in the register." The irregular and inefficient manner in which this important sanitary precaution is often performed may be learnt by comparing the mortality of Plymouth, Penzance, Portsea, Merthyr Tydfil, Redruth, and other places, which present a high death-rate from small-pox, with the mortality of Newcastle-on-Tyne, Liverpool, Nottingham, Northampton, Birmingham, Manchester, Tynemouth, Salford, and Chorlton, in each of which the number of deaths in proportion to the population is considerably less than half, in several instances less than a third, of the small-pox death-rates of the former places. There can be no doubt that the regular and efficient performance of vaccination on every child would almost entirely annihilate the mortality occasioned by small-pox, even in those places in which the mortality is smallest. The loss of life by small-pox is indeed small in comparison with what it was prior to the introduction of vaccination, but during the seven years comprised in the present inquiry upwards of 36,400 deaths were produced by small-pox in England and Wales. Most of these deaths would have been prevented had there been a perfect system of vaccination.

(b.) *Measles and Hooping-cough* often prevail at the same period, very frequently follow each other immediately in the same subject, and, when fatal, are each most commonly so from pulmonary complication. *Measles* is most fatal in the male sex in England and Wales, and in 10 of the 11 great registration divisions. The difference in the mortality of the sexes is usually small, being largest in London, where the deaths in each 100,000 males of all ages being 50, the female deaths, also in each 100,000 females of all ages, are 42. The female exceeds the male death-rate by 1 death in each 100,000 of either sex respectively in Monmouthshire and Wales. Out of 23 registration counties for which the death-rates have been computed, the male death-rate produced by measles exceeds the female death-rate from the same disease in 17, is equal to the female death-rate in 3, and inferior to it in the remaining 3. The male death-rate being considered as 100, the female death-rate in England and Wales would be 95. In London the male death-rate being 100, the female would be 84. Staffordshire and Lancashire among the counties present the highest death-rates from measles. Herefordshire, North Wales, and Bedfordshire present the lowest death-rates. The death-rates of Lancashire and Staffordshire from measles are each more than three times as much per 100,000 persons as the death-rates of Bedfordshire and North Wales, and more than four times as much as the death-rate of Herefordshire. The widest difference in the death-rates of the sexes occurs in Herefordshire, the healthiest county, and in Gloucestershire, also a healthy county. The male death-rates of each county being assumed to be 100, the female death-rates of the following counties would be—Staffordshire, 98; Lancashire, 93; Bedfordshire, 88; Herefordshire, 83; Gloucestershire, 81. *Hooping-cough* is more fatal to females than to males in England and Wales, in all the great registration divisions of the country, and in each of the 23 selected counties. The

differences of the death-rates in the sexes are usually much greater than is the case with measles. The most striking exceptions are Worcestershire and London; the male death-rate in each of which being considered as 100, the female death-rate would be—Worcestershire, 104, and London, 106. Lancashire, Cornwall, Monmouthshire, Durham, the West Riding of Yorkshire, and Northumberland, are the most fatal counties in the order in which they are here written. The male death-rate of each being assumed to be 100, the female death-rates would be—Lancashire, 122; Cornwall, 112; Monmouthshire, 127; Durham, 131; West Riding, 123; Northumberland, 119. Herefordshire, Worcestershire, and Hertfordshire, are the three healthiest counties. The male death-rates being considered as 100, the female death-rates in these healthier counties would be—Herefordshire, 137; Worcestershire, 109; Hertfordshire, 143. The deaths from hooping-cough in Lancashire are three times as many per 100,000 persons as the deaths in Herefordshire, and more than double the deaths in Worcestershire and Hertfordshire. The proportion of deaths from hooping-cough in Cornwall, Monmouthshire, Durham, the West Riding of Yorkshire, and Northumberland are nearly double the proportion of deaths in Worcestershire and Hertfordshire.

The absence of definite relation between the mortality occasioned by measles and hooping-cough and the general death-rate is well exemplified by some of the districts, the death-rates of which have been worked out in a more detailed manner. The death-rate of children under five years of age is usually a fair measure of the public health of a community.

The tendency of measles and hooping-cough to be more fatal in places where pulmonary affections are most fatal, as well as in the absence of any definite relation between the death-rates from the several diseases, is well seen in the district death-rates. Thus, the mortality from measles and hooping-cough is high in East Stonehouse, Stoke Damerel, Plymouth, Salford, Chorlton, West Derby, and other places where the mortality from pulmonary affections is high; but it is also higher in Huddersfield than in Merthyr or Coventry; higher in Sculcoates than in Ulverstone, Knaresborough, Liskeard, or King's Norton; although the death-rate from pulmonary affections is higher in Merthyr and Coventry than in Huddersfield; higher in King's Norton, Liskeard, Knaresborough, and Ulverstone than in Sculcoates.

(c). Scarlatina resembles measles and hooping-cough in respect of its contagiousness, and is more easily propagated than either from the great tendency of its contagion to cling to formites, but differs entirely from them in its complications and sequelæ. The proportion of deaths occasioned by scarlatina varies less in different places than that produced by measles and hooping-cough. It is most fatal in the densely-peopled North-western counties, in London, and in Yorkshire. The scarlatinal death-rate of each of these divisions exceeds, that of the other divisions falls below, the scarlatinal death-rate of England and Wales. The proportion of deaths produced by scarlatina is highest in the counties of Lancashire, Cheshire, Staffordshire, North Wales, the West Riding of Yorkshire, and Durham; lowest in Buckinghamshire, Hertfordshire, Bedfordshire, and Herefordshire. The scarlatinal death-rates of Lancashire and Cheshire are more than three times as high as the corresponding death-rates of Herefordshire and Bedfordshire; but the scarlatinal death-rates of Northamptonshire, Gloucestershire, and Lincolnshire, in which the mortality occasioned by

measles and hooping-cough is low, are comparatively high. The female exceeds the male death-rate from hooping-cough in all the great registration divisions in the counties, and, with few exceptions, in the districts also; but scarlatina is usually more fatal to males than to females. The male death-rate from scarlatina is higher than the female in all the registration divisions excepting Yorkshire, where the female slightly exceeds the male death-rate. In 17 of the 23 counties, the male is higher than the female death-rate; it is about equal to the female death-rate in Staffordshire, Worcestershire, Lincolnshire, Nottinghamshire, and the West Riding of Yorkshire, and is below the female death-rate in Herefordshire and Monmouthshire. The male death-rate from scarlatina exceeds the female death-rate in most of the large registration districts, as in Liverpool and West Derby, in Bristol, Birmingham, Manchester, Chorlton and Salford, Leeds, Plymouth and Devonport, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Gateshead, and Huddersfield. In Hull, Wolstanton, Liskeard, and Wycombe, the male and female death-rates are about equal. In a few places, as Merthyr Tydfil, Ulverstone, Tynemouth, and Knaresborough, the female are greater than the male death-rates.

C.—ALVINE FLUX.

Under this term are comprised the three diseases, diarrhœa, dysentery, and cholera. No fact in sanitary science seems better established than that diarrhœa and cholera are intimately associated with local causes of insalubrity; that, as has been said, "filth is either their parent or their nurse." So many independent observers in this and other countries have separately arrived at the conclusion that the prevalence and fatality of cholera are in some way connected with the infection of the atmosphere, or the fouling of the water habitually used for dietetic purposes with the products of decomposed human excrement, that there seems good reason for the supposition that this form of filth has an important influence either in the production or the aggravation of cholera. There is indeed no sufficient reason to believe that this description of impurity in its undecomposed state is capable of causing cholera or diarrhœa; neither has any satisfactory evidence been adduced that any kind of human excretion is capable of producing cholera directly, as small-pox, scarlatina, or gonorrhœa are caused by their respective special poisons; but that some product of the decomposition of excrement is, either directly or indirectly, causative of cholera, seems now to be all but established. Probably dysentery is likewise largely influenced by adventitious circumstances, especially by diet; and whilst no competent observer hesitates to believe that dysentery is often of sporadic origin, it seems probable, as was asserted by Sir John Pringle a century since, that the odour of dysenteric stools is capable of exciting dysentery.

There are very wide differences of death-rate from the class of diseases now under consideration. The largest proportion of deaths occurs among the females of Liverpool, to whom the three diseases here called alvine flux were, on the average, annually fatal to 685 persons per 100,000 during each year of the six comprised in the present investigation. The lowest death-rate occurs in Aberystwith, where only an inappreciable portion, represented by 4 per 100,000 of the population, annually perished during the seven years 1848-54. Bootle, Builth, and Holsworthy are other districts in which the mortality from this class of diseases was likewise almost inappreciable, and there are several other places in which it was exceedingly small. Considering that no means exist for excluding simple infantile diarrhœa from

the calculation, the statistics here furnished show how largely this class of diseases is produced by accidental circumstances.

The average annual death-rate from the three diseases in England and Wales during the seven years 1848-54, was 170 per 100,000 males of all ages, 160 per 100,000 females. This rate was exceeded in four of the great divisions of the country—namely, in London, the North-western counties, Yorkshire, and the Northern counties. Diarrhœa was more fatal in the North-western counties, London, the West Midland counties, and Yorkshire, than in the whole of England and Wales. Cholera was most fatal in London, in the Northern counties, and in Monmouthshire and Wales. Dysentery was most fatal in the North-western counties and in Yorkshire. The North Midland and South-western counties are the divisions in which this group of diseases was least fatal; but although the South-western counties were thus salubrious in respect of the mortality from the entire class of profluvial diseases, cholera was more fatal there than in either the South Midland or the Eastern counties; a circumstance caused by the large mortality in some parts of the South-western division at epidemic periods. Herefordshire, North Wales, Lincolnshire, Northamptonshire, and Cornwall, among the counties here referred to, present the lowest rates of mortality. The death-loss per 100,000 persons in Herefordshire and North Wales is only one-fifth that sustained by England and Wales. Cornwall and Northamptonshire sustained nearly three times as large, and Lincolnshire more than twice as large, a mortality as Herefordshire; and yet, as has just been said, the counties of Lincoln, Northampton, and Cornwall are comparatively healthy. The death-rate of each of the three counties from profluvial diseases was less than half the death-rate of the West Riding of Yorkshire, or of Durham, Warwickshire, Staffordshire, and Northumberland, and, Cornwall excepted, less than one-third the death-rate of Lancashire. Cholera produced a larger proportion of deaths than diarrhœa in London, Durham, Northumberland, Monmouthshire, and South Wales. No doubt this result, as regards London, Northumberland, and Durham, is partly to be attributed to the greater severity in them of the epidemic visitation of 1853-54. Diarrhœa was more fatal to males than females in all the divisions and counties; cholera was more fatal to females than males in Lancashire, Durham, Northumberland, and Cumberland.

In a selection of districts in which profluvial diseases were most fatal, contrasted with others in which the fatality was comparatively small, the highest mortality was presented by two of the chief seaport towns, Liverpool and Hull. Merthyr Tydfil, Leeds, Coventry, and Wolverhampton, were the inland towns which come nearest to these seaports in the mortality they have sustained from profluvial diseases. Cholera has generally been fatal where diarrhœa also is fatal; but, in some cases, as Gateshead, Tynemouth, and Abergavenny, although the diarrhœal death-rate is comparatively low, the mortality from cholera has been large. There are, on the other hand, certain districts, as Birmingham, Nottingham, and Leicester, where the mortality from diarrhœa has been very considerable, that from cholera exceedingly small. Birmingham, for example, loses a larger proportion of its inhabitants from diarrhœa than Hull, Merthyr Tydfil, Leeds, Newcastle-on-Tyne, or Wolverhampton, notwithstanding that it has sustained so small a mortality from cholera. Birmingham, in fact, stands fifth for insalubrity as regards diarrhœa. The high death-rate of Coventry, both from diarrhœa and cholera, is remarkable, especially when

compared with the smaller death-rates of Birmingham, Manchester, Sheffield, and Nottingham.

D.—TYPHUS AND ERYSIPELAS.

Fever and erysipelas are frequently mentioned as amongst the most preventable diseases. It would be improper to enter here into an investigation of the evidence that has been adduced in support of the assertion. Under the common denomination of typhus are comprised several distinct varieties, or, as they are now believed to be by many physicians of high authority on the subject, distinct kinds of fever. So also two essentially distinct forms of disease are probably included under the term erysipelas; the one a definite febrile disease, allied to the eruptive fevers, which perhaps arises quite irrespective of removable causes, and like fever and the exanthematous diseases, is very often indeed produced by contagion; the other an unhealthy form of cutaneous and sub-cutaneous inflammation, which certainly occurs most frequently in the over-crowded wards of hospitals, and in persons whose systems have been debilitated and disordered by living amidst filth and other causes of atmospheric contamination. The latter form of erysipelas, or, as it would more properly be called, erysipelatous inflammation, usually occurs in patients who have sustained some local injury involving a wound of the skin, and, besides arising spontaneously under the conditions already mentioned, it is, like true erysipelas, capable of being propagated by contagion. It is impossible to separate these several forms of fever and erysipelas from each other in an investigation of the present kind; but it is at least very clear that the high mortality of unhealthy places is only in a small degree attributable to fever, which, moreover, is also frequently the cause of a considerable mortality in places where the general death-rate is low.

(a.) *Typhus*.—In round terms, fever was fatal on the average to 100 persons in each 100,000 of the population of England and Wales in each year of the septennial period. This average was exceeded in London, the South Midland counties, the North Western counties, and in Monmouthshire and Wales. The South Eastern counties, the West Midland counties, and the Eastern counties sustained an annual average mortality during the seven years about equal to that of England and Wales. The fever death-rate in the four remaining great registration divisions fell below the general average. In some of the districts the male, in others the female, death-rate from fever is highest. In Nottingham, Preston, Macclesfield, Derby, Norwich, King's Norton, Redruth, and Worcester, the sexes die in about equal proportions, whence it may be inferred that they are equally exposed to the influence of contagion or to the other causes of fever. The male death-rate considerably exceeds the female in Abergavenny, Merthyr Tydfil, Blackburn, Wolverhampton, Liverpool, Manchester, Leeds, Salford, Chorlton, and Tynemouth. These are all places in which the general death-rates are high; Tynemouth, the healthiest of the series, loses 24 persons annually by death out of each 1,000 of its population, and several of the others are among the unhealthiest districts in England. The greatest excess of the female over the male death-rate occurs in Halifax, Ulverstone, Hemel Hempstead, Towcester, Bedford, Northampton, Leighton Buzzard, and Luton. In Halifax and Northampton the male and female population are both employed in manufactures, but the male very much more largely than the female. In Ulverstone a proportion of the adult

women, scarcely exceeding 2 per cent., is employed in the cotton manufacture. In the other places the female population is largely employed in special manufactures; the male almost exclusively in agricultural pursuits. On the other hand, the female mortality is higher than the male in Birmingham, Saffron Walden, Huddersfield, and Weardale; and the male is considerably higher than the female in Berkhamstead, where more than 28 per cent. of the women are employed in the manufacture of straw plait. The comparative mortality of the sexes varies at different periods of life. The death-rate for the whole of life is about equal in males and females in Redruth and Macclesfield, but the proportionate death-rate of adult men in both places is much higher than that of adult women. The female exceeds the male death-rate for the whole of life in Birmingham and Bristol, but the mortality of adult men exceeds that of adult women in both these cities. The male exceeds the female death-rate for the whole of life in Hull, Leeds, and Liverpool, but the adult male still more largely exceeds the adult female mortality in each of these places. The mortality of females above twenty years of age in Towcester exceeds the mortality of males above twenty years of age in nearly the same proportion as the female exceeds the male death-rate for the whole of life. The mortality of women from fever also exceeds the mortality of men in Glendale, New Forest, Alston, and Reeth. It is remarkable that the mortality of females from fever is greater than that of males in each of the three chief lead-mining districts of Alston, Weardale, and Reeth.

(b.) *Erysipelas*.—The mortality from erysipelas is not large anywhere. London, among the great divisions, sustains the largest, and Monmouthshire and Wales the smallest, death-loss. The London death-rate in both sexes is three times as high as the death-rate of Monmouthshire and Wales. The variations of death-rate in the other great registration divisions of the country are insignificant. Buckinghamshire, Bedfordshire, Warwickshire, Northumberland, and Cumberland present the highest death-rates among the counties; Durham, Monmouthshire, Herefordshire, Cornwall, South Wales, and North Wales present the smallest death-rates. The female exceeds the male death-rate from erysipelas in Bedfordshire, Leicestershire, Nottinghamshire, and the West Riding of Yorkshire; the male is higher than the female death-rate in all the other counties. It is not perhaps unworthy of notice that the female death-loss from erysipelas is proportionably higher than the male in Bedfordshire, where the men are chiefly employed in agriculture, but 33 per cent. of the women are employed in manufactures, and likewise in Leicestershire and Nottinghamshire, where the women are largely employed in the manufacture of lace. The male death-rate of Worcester from erysipelas is very high, and is very nearly two-and-a-half times as high as the female death-rate of the same place. Excluding this evidently exceptional case, Liverpool, Derby, Birmingham, Norwich, Hemel Hempstead, Berkhamstead, King's Norton, and Nottingham, present the highest death-rates; Merthyr Tydfil, Redruth, Halifax, Preston, Tynemouth, and Bradford, among places of sufficient size to admit of fair comparison, present the smallest death-rates from erysipelas.

E.—CROUP, INFLUENZA, AND AGUE.

The mortality produced by these three diseases is in no instance large, and it forms only a small proportion of the general death-rate. Under the name of croup are probably registered many deaths caused by spurious or

spasmodic croup; a disease often perhaps mistaken for inflammatory croup, but really of a very different nature. Influenza prevails chiefly in the epidemic form; and indeed it is questionable whether the cases annually registered as influenza in several of the larger districts ought to be classed in the same category with epidemic influenza. The relation between ague and malaria is perhaps one of the best established truths in medicine. Although ague only occurs in unhealthy places, town influences are by no means particularly favourable to its development. The covering of the surface of towns with roads and buildings, and the drainage of the subsoil, tend to prevent the extrication of malaria, or to remove its cause. Ague is rarely immediately fatal in this climate. When death results from malaria in this country, it usually arises from some secondary affection, and is not registered under the name of ague. The total mortality from this cause is probably much larger than is usually believed; and yet even so it will in this climate constitute but a very small proportion of the general death-rate.

(a.) *Croup* is usually thought to be more fatal in damp places, by the sides of rivers and marshes, than in drier and more elevated situations. If this supposition were correct, croup might, therefore, be expected to be most fatal where ague is most fatal. The highest mortality from croup occurs in Lancashire and South Wales; but setting aside South Wales, the mortality appears to be larger in the northern than the southern counties of England. While London, for example, only sustains an average annual loss of 17 males and 13 females out of each 100,000 of either sex, the death-rate of the four northern counties is 26 per 100,000 males and 23 per 100,000 females. The death-rate of Yorkshire corresponds very closely with that of the counties on its northern border. The mortality from croup appears large in some of the great towns, but it bears no direct proportion to their general death-rates, and is, perhaps, so large in several of them because cases of spasmodic croup are registered as true croup. With this exception, croup does not seem to be more fatal in towns than in rural districts. Croup is not much more fatal in Macclesfield and Liverpool than in Glendale; it is more fatal in Glendale than in Huddersfield, Wolverhampton, and Bradford; more fatal in Weardale than in Newcastle-on-Tyne, Tyne-mouth, or Leeds. The male death-rates from croup are higher than the female in all the divisions and the several counties, excepting Cumberland, where the male and female death-rates exactly coincide. This accords with medical observation, from which it has been deduced that male are more liable to croup than female children. With few exceptions, the same rule holds good in the districts likewise, Merthyr Tydfil, where the female death-rate is 19 per 100,000 higher than the male, being the most remarkable exception. Croup has not prevailed in a decidedly epidemic form during any of the years that have been examined.

(b.) *Influenza*.—It has been satisfactorily shown by the Registrar-General, in his account of the epidemic influenza of 1847, that that visitation was more fatal in metropolitan districts which ordinarily sustain a high mortality than in healthier districts; and both medical and common observations have repeatedly proved that influenza is no respecter of places, but attacks indiscriminately the inhabitants of unhealthy and of healthy districts within its line of march. Influenza is therefore fatal in the unhealthy parts of towns, not because it there finds conditions favourable to its development, but because it there meets with a population with impaired health, unable to resist its onslaught. Probably, if the kind of investigation originated in

this paper be more analytically pursued, it will hereafter be found that influenza is most fatal where pulmonary affections most prevail, and that this fatality is due to its attacking persons whose lungs have been already damaged by disease.

(c.) *Ague*.—The large mortality produced by ague among the male inhabitants of Maidstone and Gravesend is probably caused by the men being exposed to malarious influence when at work on their several occupations, and especially by the deaths of seamen in Gravesend, who have contracted the disease abroad, and of boatmen and bargemen employed in inland navigation at both places. It has sometimes been said that malarious influence is unfavourable to the development of phthisis; that ague and phthisis are, in fact, in some measure antagonistic. The question is more interesting in a medical than a public health point of view, but may perhaps not improperly be noticed here. On account of the uncertainty of the diagnosis between phthisis and some other diseases of the respiratory organs, the mortality from both is separately shown. The six districts in which no deaths from ague are recorded present death-rates from phthisis and diseases of the respiratory organs which do not differ materially from the death-rates of the malarious districts. Liskeard, for example, contrasts favourably with Wisbeach; Wycombe with North Witchford; Leominster with Whiteley; Richmond with Spalding. It would be a too hasty inference to affirm from data of so limited a character that the opinion that malarious influence is unfavourable to the development of phthisis is altogether unfounded. The present facts at least afford it no support.

F.—STRUMOUS DISEASES.

Phthisis, considered in section A., and hydrocephalus, to be considered in the next section, are strumous diseases, but on account of their liability to be confounded with other diseases, different indeed in pathological character, but possessing many points of resemblance in their symptoms, I have considered it best to place them in separate classes with the diseases for which they are liable to be mistaken. There remain, therefore, for consideration, under the head of strumous diseases, only the diseases registered under the somewhat vague term *scrofula*, and the well-defined form of disease called *tabes mesenterica*.

(a.) *Scrofula*.—The fluctuations in the death-rates from *scrofula* are not large. It is upon the whole more fatal in healthy than in unhealthy districts, a circumstance which may depend upon the hereditary tendency to *scrofula* showing itself in milder and more curable forms than visceral tuberculosis in such districts. It may be added that a large proportion of "scrofulous diseases" are in fact diseases of imperfect nourishment; and it would be difficult to estimate the local influences favourable to their development without being in a position to measure the proportion of poverty and privation among the inhabitants. In England *scrofula* is most fatal in the Eastern counties division. It is more fatal in Monmouthshire and Wales than in any of the English divisions. The agricultural counties of Cambridge and Buckingham sustain a higher proportionate mortality from *scrofula* than the counties of Lancashire, Staffordshire, and the West Riding of Yorkshire. Bulth, Weardale, Aberystwith, Lewes, Towcester, Saffron Walden, and Newport Pagnell, districts which contain at most only a very small proportion of urban inhabitants, and where the population is scantily distributed on the surface of the earth, lose a larger proportion of their inhabitants from *scrofula* than the densely peopled towns of Liverpool,

Birmingham, Coventry, Bradford, Wolverhampton, and Huddersfield. The general death-rates of Newport Pagnell, Towcester, and Huddersfield are alike; but, with this exception, the general death-rates of the series of town districts very considerably exceed the general death-rates of the series of country places whose death-losses from scrofula are here contrasted together. Bideford, Holsworthy, Glendale, and Haltwhistle, which are all of them remarkably healthy districts, maintain this character in respect of scrofula, but,—even supposing there is no difference in the system of registration, a circumstance very likely to occur in the recording of deaths under so vague a title as scrofula,—it is necessary to recollect a source of fallacy which may possibly influence the result. Several of these small healthy rural places send a large proportion of their young adult inhabitants to supply the ever-craving requirements of labour in urban districts. Hence the proportion of persons in the early adult period of life is often comparatively small in such places. The proportion of persons between the ages of 20 and 40 years in the population of England and Wales is to the proportion of young persons under 20 years of age as nearly 69 to 100. In the town districts the proportion is often much larger; but in Glendale there are less than 51, and in Bideford and Holsworthy there are only 55 persons between the ages of 20 and 40 for every 100 persons under the age of 20 years. The diseases referred to the head of scrofula are probably most fatal in early life, and will therefore seem to be less fatal than they really are in a population which contains a large proportion of the very young and the aged, as is the case in the places just referred to, unless the relative proportions of the inhabitants belonging to the several ages be taken into consideration. Scrofula is more fatal to males than to females. Cumberland among the counties is the only exception. There are several exceptions to the rule in the smaller districts; none amongst the larger towns. Such exceptions are not surprising in places like Reeth, Aberystwith, and Alston, where the male inhabitants are exposed to occupational influences which are liable to produce early death from pulmonary disease.

(b.) *Tabes Mesenterica*.—Strumous disease of the belly, which might very properly be termed abdominal consumption, like the analogous disease in the chest, pulmonary consumption, is more fatal in urban than in rural districts. Among the great registration divisions it is most fatal in London, next in the Northern counties, the Eastern counties, and the West Midland counties, in the order in which they are here written. The urban influence over the death-rates appears very decided, but by no means uniform. Thus the death-rates from *tabes mesenterica* of Gateshead, Tynemouth, Abergavenny, Wolverhampton, Hull, Birmingham, Lewes, Liverpool, and Coventry are, in several instances, twice as large, and in all not much less than twice as large, as the death-rates of Newport Pagnell, Alston, Leominster, Liskeard, Towcester, Weardale, Saffron Walden, Knaresborough, Farnham, Bideford, and Aberystwith. The death-rates of Gateshead, Tynemouth, Abergavenny, and Hull are more than four times as high as the death-rates of Weardale, Knaresborough, Farnham, Bideford, and Aberystwith. On the other hand, the death-rates from *tabes mesenterica* of the great and densely-peopled towns of Liverpool, Birmingham, and Bradford, are less than the death-rates of Gateshead, Tynemouth, and Abergavenny. Males usually die from *tabes mesenterica* in a larger proportion than females. They do so in England and Wales, and in all the great divisions, excepting Monmouthshire and Wales, where the death-rates of the sexes are equal. In Worcestershire

and Nottinghamshire the sexes also die at an equal rate; but in Herefordshire, Lincolnshire, and Monmouthshire, the female is higher than the male death-rate. In Abergavenny, Aberystwith, Saffron Walden, Huddersfield, Dudley, Kidderminster, and Bideford, the female also exceeds the male death-rate. The rule, however, appears to be that the male exceeds the female death-rate from *tabes mesenterica*.

G.—NERVOUS DISEASES OF CHILDREN.

The three causes of death called in the Registrar-General's classification hydrocephalus, convulsions, and teething, are here grouped together to form the class to which I have applied the term "nervous diseases of children." Like the class of pulmonary affections that has been already considered, they form a tolerably natural and reliable group, and much uncertainty would attend the effort to treat them separately in an investigation of the present nature. They are especially diseases of infancy and early childhood, and, as might have been expected, are much more fatal in towns than in country districts. In reference to the nomenclature of these diseases, and to the errors that might be presumed to arise from the same disease being differently classed in different places, it is well to observe that by far the largest number of the deaths caused by the three diseases is produced by convulsions, a disease of so marked a character as almost to preclude the possibility of error. Next comes hydrocephalus, the mortality from which, however, mostly falls considerably short of that occasioned by convulsions. Teething, in respect of which mistakes might more readily happen, very rarely produces more than one-seventh of the total mortality occasioned by the three diseases conjointly, and the proportion more frequently falls below than exceeds a seventh. A few examples in illustration will tend to confirm the reliability of the comparisons about to be instituted between the death-rates of different places. The death-rate for both sexes in Carnarvon from the three conjoint diseases is 510. No less than 484 of these deaths are referable to convulsions. The mortality occasioned by this very definite form of disease in Carnarvon is, therefore, fourteen times as great as that produced by hydrocephalus and teething together. The mortality from the three diseases in Liverpool is at the rate of 338 per 100,000, whereof 212 are attributable to convulsions, and 89 to hydrocephalus. The proportion of deaths referred to convulsions in Bradford is 334 per 100,000, the average annual death-rate for this group of diseases being 461, and 76 of the remainder being set down to hydrocephalus. In Sheffield, the annual average death-rate from the three diseases conjointly is 350 per 100,000, of which 235 are attributed to convulsions, and 68 to hydrocephalus. Three-fifths of the total mortality produced by the three diseases in Alston are entered in the death register under the name of hydrocephalus.

The variations in the proportion of deaths produced by the nervous diseases of children in different places are very great. The death-rates for England and Wales are—male, 231; female, 174. The rate falls below this general average in seven of the great divisions; exceeds it in four. The highest rates are presented by Yorkshire, the North-western counties, Monmouthshire and Wales, and the North Midland counties; the lowest by the South Midland counties, the South-western counties, and the Eastern counties, in the order in which they are here written. The death-rate of London is less than the general average, and even contrasts favourably with the Northern counties. Cornwall, Herefordshire, Cumberland, and Bucking-

hamshire, among the counties, present the lowest death-rates; the West Riding of Yorkshire, Lancashire, Cheshire, and Monmouthshire, the highest. The death-rates of the West Riding and the county of Lancaster are in each sex threefold the death-rates of Cornwall, Herefordshire, Cumberland, and Buckinghamshire, and twofold the death-rates of Hertfordshire, Northamptonshire, Bedfordshire, Worcestershire, Gloucestershire, and Cambridgeshire. The chief manufacturing counties evidently sustain the highest mortality from the nervous diseases of children, and the more purely agricultural counties the lowest; but the rule is not absolute, for the mortality is lower in Warwickshire than in Northamptonshire or Hertfordshire, and is very considerable in the purely agricultural county of Lincoln. The lowest rate is that of Cornwall, a mining county, and next to it stands Cumberland, where a considerable per-centage of the male inhabitants are engaged in mining and manufacturing industry, and a small per-centage of the female population are employed in the manufacture of textile fabrics. On the other hand, Monmouthshire and North and South Wales, where the men are partially employed in mining, as in Cornwall, and partially in the iron manufactures, and where the women follow no particular industrial pursuit, each sustains a high mortality from the nervous diseases of early life. Monmouthshire and the Welsh counties also present a rather high mortality from strumous diseases and from phthisis. The question of race here again presents itself to the mind; and, although it would be hazardous to speculate upon such imperfect data as the present, it seems not unlikely that race has much influence over disease and mortality, that, as in the lower animals, so in man, particular races may be especially prone to the development of particular forms of disease, and to a longer or a briefer term of life, quite irrespective of the circumstances by which individuals may happen to be encompassed. The possibility is at least worthy of being kept in view, when considering the multifarious influences that combine to give its character to the public health.

The mean annual mortality caused by the nervous diseases of children varies in the registration districts from the rate of less than 40 per 100,000 persons in Glendale, which here again preserves its pre-eminence for salubrity, to about 500 in Carnarvon.

In general terms, the mortality is lowest amongst the thinly scattered population of rural districts; highest in the large towns. The highest death-rates occur in the manufacturing towns of Bradford, Halifax, Manchester, and Leeds; in the mixed mining and manufacturing district of Wigan; and in the three Welsh districts, Carnarvon, Merthyr Tydfil, and Wrexham. The lowest death-rates among the 105 districts are found in Blofield, Garstang, Builth, Holsworthy, Haltwhistle, Bootle, Alston, and Glendale. These are all rural places, and, excepting Alston, where a large proportion of the men are employed in lead-mining, and Garstang, where a small proportion of the adults of both sexes are employed in the cotton manufacture, they are inhabited by an almost purely agricultural population. But the deaths are by no means in exact proportion to the more or less rural or urban character of the districts. Easington has a higher death-rate than Tynemouth, Birmingham, or Bristol; Hemel Hempstead, Romney Marsh, and Saffron Walden have higher death-rates than Ipswich. The small town of Houghton-le-Spring has a higher death-rate than either Bristol or Birmingham, and Carnarvon has a higher death-rate than Liverpool.

Of the districts comprised in this investigation, Carnarvon, as already

said, has the highest death-rate from the nervous diseases of children. But Carnarvon is by no means a singularly unhealthy place. Its general death-rate for the septennial period 1848-54 is a little under the general death-rate of England and Wales, and nearly coincides with the death-rate of the Welsh division in which it is situated. The public health of Carnarvon, measured by the general death-rate, is very superior to the public health of Liverpool. For each 5 deaths out of a given proportion of the inhabitants of Carnarvon, of all ages and both sexes, 8 occur in a similar number of the inhabitants of Liverpool. Yet for every 100 of the males of Liverpool that die from these children's diseases more than 140 perish in Carnarvon. This circumstance is the more remarkable, as the proportionate death-rate of children under five years of age, from all causes, in Liverpool, is more than double that in Carnarvon. The male children of Liverpool below the age of five years annually perish at the rate of 14,938 per 100,000; the deaths of the same class in Carnarvon are only at the rate of 6,100 per 100,000. The causes of death must, therefore, differ much in two places. A casual death from hydrocephalus at a more advanced age, and perchance the accidental but rare registration of other convulsive affections under the head of "convulsions," being excepted, the deaths from the group of diseases now under consideration may be considered as occurring in children under five years of age. Adopting this view, and employing the infantile inhabitants of each sex in the several places as divisors, the death-rates from the nervous diseases of children have been calculated for twenty districts.

Whilst the average mortality from all causes among the children of Liverpool is more than double that in Carnarvon, in proportion to their respective populations, the proportion of deaths from pulmonary affections under five years of age is more than seven times as high in the former as in the latter. The male children of Carnarvon die from pulmonary affections at the annual rate of 390; those of Liverpool at the annual rate of 3,092 per 100,000. As might be inferred, from the great prevalence of pulmonary diseases in Liverpool, measles and hooping-cough, diseases chiefly of childhood, but not exclusively of early childhood, which are most frequently fatal from pulmonary complications, are also much more fatal in Liverpool than Carnarvon. The male death-rate from the two diseases in Liverpool is 192, that in Carnarvon 78, per 100,000. Scarletina, an analogous disease, but a disease which does not implicate the organs of respiration, is about equally fatal in Liverpool and Carnarvon. Diarrhœa, again, is exceedingly destructive among the children of Liverpool, to whom it proves fatal in the annual proportion of 1,793 per 100,000 male children below the age of five years. The mortality from diarrhœa in Carnarvon is most insignificant.

If the mortuary statistics of the infantile population of other towns be examined, the same absence of uniform relation is found to exist between the proportion of deaths from all causes and from particular diseases. Birmingham, Hull, and Bristol do not differ much in the proportion of children that die under five years of age in each. Yet the mortality from the nervous diseases of children is twice as high in Hull as in Birmingham, and not much less than twice as high as in Bristol. The male death-rates in children under five years of age from this group of diseases in the three places, are—Hull, 2,938; Birmingham, 1,493; Bristol, 1,646 per 100,000. The death-rates of male children, from all causes, in the same times, are—Hull, 10,203; Birmingham, 10,497; Bristol, 10,008. The deaths from

all causes among the male children of Hull are to the deaths of male children in Bristol as 102 to 100, out of an equal number of the infantile male inhabitants of each place; but the deaths from the nervous diseases of children in Hull and Bristol are as 178 to 100. The infantile mortality of these places is, in fact, produced by different diseases. Thus pulmonary affections, which, on the average, annually prove fatal to the male children of Hull in the proportion of 1,465 per 100,000, destroy the much larger proportion of 2,072 in Bristol, and of 2,094 in Birmingham. Measles and whooping-cough are, jointly, somewhat more fatal in Birmingham than in Bristol, in Bristol than in Hull. Scarlatina is most fatal in Bristol, least fatal in Hull. Diarrhoea is fatal to the male children of each of the three towns, but it is very nearly twice as fatal in Birmingham, in proportion to the population, as in Bristol or Hull. The proportion of deaths from diarrhoea, per 100,000, is 1,567 in Birmingham, 890 in Bristol, and 839 in Hull. If, again, the mortality sustained by the children of Manchester be compared with the mortality of the children of Wolverhampton, a similar absence of definite relation between the mortality from all causes and from nervous diseases will be observed. The average annual death-rates of the male children of the two districts, from all causes, are—Manchester, 13,539; Wolverhampton, 12,050; that is, the death-rate of boys in Manchester is to the death-rate of boys in Wolverhampton as 112 to 100. The nervous diseases of children, however, are fatal to the children of these towns in very different proportions. The death-rates of males are—Manchester, 3,496; Wolverhampton, 2,132 per 100,000; that is, the death-rate of boys from this group of diseases in Wolverhampton being considered as 100, the death-rate in Manchester would be 163. Pulmonary diseases are about equally fatal in Manchester and Wolverhampton, and so likewise are measles and whooping-cough conjointly; but scarlatina is fatal to 147 children per 100,000 in the former, as compared with 105 in the latter, and diarrhoea, which is fatal to 1,945 male children per 100,000 in Manchester, as compared with 1,188 in Wolverhampton, is thus fatal to the boys of the two places in exactly the same proportion as nervous diseases, the diarrhoeal death-rate of Manchester being to the diarrhoeal death-rate of Wolverhampton as 163 to 100. It would be interesting, but it is unnecessary, to pursue this line of investigation in respect of other towns. Enough has probably been done to illustrate the varying proportions in which different causes of death unite to make up the general death-rate of children.

With one or two unimportant exceptions, which occur in places of such small size that the occurrence of a very few deaths more or less would materially alter the death-rate, the male death-rate from the nervous diseases of children invariably exceeds the female. It is not a little remarkable, however, that the proportion between the male and female death-rates varies much in different districts. The widest differences exist in Bulth, Blofield, Holsworthy, Hemel Hempstead, and Saffron Walden, where the male death-rate being counted as 100, the female would be 46 in Bulth, 50 in Blofield, 54 in Holsworthy, 53 in Hemel Hempstead, and 55 in Saffron Walden. These are, however, districts in which the population is small, and the death-rates therefore liable to fluctuation from accidental causes. The male death-rate from the nervous diseases of children for England and Wales being considered as 100, the female would be 75, or just one-fourth less. The widest difference among the great divisions

exists in London, where, the male death-rate being 100, the female would be only 68; the smallest difference is in the Northern counties and in Monmouthshire and Wales, where the female death-rates would be 80 and 81 respectively, the male being considered as 100. The male death-rate in each case being considered as 100, the female death-rates in the other divisions would be, South-eastern counties, Eastern counties, and North Midland counties, each 75; South Midland counties and North Western counties, each 76; West Midland counties and Yorkshire, each 77; and the South-western counties, 73. Among the larger districts, Merthyr Tydfil and Newcastle-on-Tyne are the places in which the death-rates of the sexes approximate the nearest; Redruth, Nottingham, Leicester, and Derby, those in which they most diverge. The male death-rate in each district being considered as 100, the female death-rates from the nervous diseases of children in the following districts would be—Redruth, 66; Nottingham, 67; Leicester, 68; Derby, 68; West Derby, 72; Manchester, 73; Tynemouth, 73; Salford, 74; Hull, 74; Blackburn, 74; Glendale, 74; Bradford, 75; Chorlton, 76; Sheffield, 77; Liverpool, 78; Halifax, 79; Leeds, 79; Wigan, 81; Wrexham, 82; Gateshead, 84; Abergavenny, 84; Newcastle-on-Tyne, 91; and Merthyr Tydfil, 96. These differences are remarkable, and much greater than could arise from any discrepancies between the proportions of male and female children and male and female adults in the different places. They well show how much room still remains for inquiry into the nature of the causes which modify the public health. Fallacies from difference of diagnostic skill or of opinion on the part of the medical practitioners who record the causes of death can scarcely modify these results, for the death-rates of the sexes have in each case been calculated for the same period of time, and the causes of death in each sex have consequently been certified by the same medical men.

This remarkable and variable disproportion in the death-rate of the sexes from the same class of diseases is in some respects parallel to the equally remarkable disproportion between the comparative number of male and female births in different districts. The male births in this country are nearly in the proportion of 104 to each 100 births of females. This proportion is, however, by no means uniform in all parts of the country, but varies so much that whilst in some counties the male births but little exceed those of females, in other counties the excess amounts to eight and in one county to nine per cent. No doubt there is some definite, although at present recondite, cause for the diversity. So unquestionably is there some equally definite cause for the wide fluctuations here shown to exist in the mortality of the two sexes from these diseases of children in different districts.

Notwithstanding the great diversities in the proportion of deaths from the nervous diseases of children that have been shown to exist in different districts, it is quite certain that the circumstances attendant on a town residence are largely operative in the production of these diseases. Into the nature of these circumstances it is not here necessary to inquire, but the fact that urban influences have really much to do with the causation of these diseases seems to be exemplified in the mortuary statistics of the two adjacent districts of Easington and Houghton-le-Spring, in the county of Durham. Both places are similarly situated in regard to general atmospheric influences; both are tolerably salubrious; and the prevalent industrial occupations of both are nearly identical. Only twelve in each

hundred of the adult male inhabitants of Easington are engaged in agriculture. In Houghton-le-Spring, the proportion of the population engaged in agricultural pursuits amount to ten per cent. Fifty per cent. of the adult males of Easington are coal-miners. In Houghton-le-Spring the number of coal-miners amounts to nearly forty-eight in each hundred adult males. The most obvious difference between the districts is, that the small town of Houghton-le-Spring, which contained less than 4,000 inhabitants in 1851, comprised within the one district, has no parallel in the other. There is indeed one circumstance that should not be overlooked in this comparison, and it is a circumstance that would certainly modify any conclusions drawn from minor differences of death-rate. A coal-mining population is frequently a fluctuating population, for when a colliery is laid in, the miners remove to other neighbourhoods; and of course the opening of a new colliery collects a population in places which in all probability were previously unoccupied by inhabitants. New mines were opened in the Easington district between the census of 1841 and that of 1851; and the population in consequence increased 38 per cent. in the ten years. The increase in Houghton-le-Spring during the same period was a little under 22 per cent. Two modes of obviating any source of error that might arise from this cause, however, exist; the one is the comparison of the proportion of the total mortality of each place caused by these diseases; the other is the comparison of the death-rates of children under the age of five years in the two districts. Whilst in Easington the deaths from the nervous diseases of children during the entire septennial period only amounted to 12 per cent. of the entire mortality, the proportion was one-third more in Houghton-le-Spring, where 16 per cent. of all the deaths were caused by the same group of diseases. The general death-rate of boys under five years of age in Easington is 6,150; that in Houghton-le-Spring, 6,581 per 100,000. The death-rates from the nervous diseases of children are, Easington, 1,418; Houghton-le-Spring, 2,274. The general death-rates of boys thus being in the proportion of 100 in Easington to 107 in Houghton-le-Spring, the death-rates of the same class from nervous diseases are in the proportion of 100 to 160. The approximation of the general death-rates of children in the two places seems to show that the supposed disturbing cause has really had little influence on the rate of mortality in children; the large divergence in the death-rates of children from the nervous diseases of early life seems to prove that the infantile population of the one place is exposed to some noxious influences which are at least less intense in the neighbouring districts.

There is one interesting and suggestive fact that must not be passed unnoticed. It is, that the mortality from the nervous diseases of children is not only higher in towns than in rural districts, but is also higher in manufacturing than in other towns, and highest in places where female labour is most in request. Thus it is higher in Bradford, Halifax, Manchester, Wigan, and Leeds, than in Hull, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Birmingham, or Bristol. It appears to be higher in places where females work in factories than in their homes; higher, for example, in Macclesfield than in Coventry. Even in rural communities the influence of female occupation over the mortality of children seems apparent; the mortality produced by these diseases in Glendale, Haltwhistle, Bulth, Holsworthy, and Farnham being much less than the mortality caused by the same diseases in Leighton Buzzard, Hemel Hempstead, Pateley Bridge, or Knaresborough. The

rule, if it be one, is not without many exceptions, and the facts here mentioned can only be received at present as suggestive of more careful inquiry and observation. To work out the question to its full extent, and to determine whether there is more than an apparent relation between the employment of females in other pursuits than the ordinary social and domestic duties of their sex and the deaths of young children, would require much time, and a minute and extensive acquaintance with numerous districts, which could only be acquired by making the subject one of special inquiry.

H.—APOPLEXY AND PARALYSIS.

These diseases are most fatal in London, the South-eastern counties, and the South-western counties; least fatal in the North-western counties, the North Midland counties, and Monmouthshire and Wales. Gloucestershire, among the counties, presents the highest death-rate, and next in succession to it follow Herefordshire, Worcestershire, and Buckinghamshire; South Wales, Monmouthshire, Staffordshire, and Cambridgeshire present the lowest death-rates. Worcester presents the highest, Chesterfield, Merthyr Tydfil, and Easington, the lowest death-rates. The mortality from the two diseases is nearly twice as high in Hull, Bristol, and Norwich as in Dudley, Chesterfield, or Merthyr; but the mortality bears no definite relation to either the size of town, districts, or the density of their population. Manchester and Birmingham sustain a smaller proportionate mortality from these causes than Berkhamstead, Tynemouth, and Gateshead; and Liverpool sustains a smaller proportionate mortality than Macclesfield, Coventry, and Newcastle-on-Tyne. There is no fixed relation between the male and female death-rates, but they correspond more frequently than in some of the diseases previously investigated. Thus, the males and females die at equal or nearly equal rates in Bristol, Norwich, Berkhamstead, Tynemouth, Newcastle, Coventry, Macclesfield, Bromsgrove, Huddersfield, Bradford, and Dudley; in Worcester, Hull, Gateshead, Manchester, Liverpool, and Abergavenny, the male very considerably exceeds the female death-rate. In Stoke-upon-Trent, Wolstanton, Penzance, Carnarvon, Alcester, and Birmingham, the female exceeds the male death-rate. For these differences it is impossible to suggest any reasonable explanation from the present data. Apoplexy and paralysis are mostly secondary diseases that occur as the result of a primary affection. Their causes must, therefore, be sought in the circumstances that produce the primary affections from which they spring. They are, moreover, diseases rather of middle and advanced life, and hence deaths from them are most likely to occur in excess in places where the mortality in early life is small. Natural decay often terminates in one of these forms of disease, either from disease of the nervous structure itself, in consequence of impaired nutrition, or from pressure on the nervous centres, the result of effusion, itself the consequence of diseased blood-vessels. There is no fixed relation in the death-rates from the two diseases, and, practically, they are best considered together in investigations of the present kind.

I.—RHEUMATIC FEVER AND RHEUMATISM.

Apoplexy and paralysis are commonly the fatal terminations of preceding and often unsuspected diseases. Rheumatic fever and rheumatism, on the contrary, most frequently prove fatal by the production of secondary

diseases; and hence deaths really the ultimate consequence of rheumatism appear in the death register under a different name. The reason for placing rheumatism among the diseases selected for the investigation was, that rheumatic fever is referred to the class of zymotic diseases in the arrangement used by the Registrar-General. The direct mortality produced by rheumatism in any form constitutes but a very small fraction of the deaths in any district; and, so far as my investigation is to be relied upon, the mortality it produces in unhealthy towns is not sensibly greater than the mortality which it produces in rural communities. Other diseases may sometimes, perhaps, be registered under the name of rheumatism; and in the case of a disease that, in its uncomplicated form, very rarely, indeed proves fatal, this circumstance would materially lessen the reliability of the local statistics, a very few deaths more or less materially altering the death-rate. For this reason it is all but impossible to institute any reliable comparison between the mortality of small rural communities and that of large towns. Rheumatic fever and rheumatism are together more fatal in London than in any other of the eleven great registration divisions. Next to London they are most fatal to the inhabitants of the North-western counties; they are least fatal in the Northern counties and the South-western counties. Lincolnshire, Northumberland, and Durham, among the counties, present the lowest rates of mortality; Cheshire, Lancashire, Staffordshire, and Warwick, present the highest. The male usually exceeds the female death-rate from rheumatic affections. In a few cases the male and female death-rates are equal. In the counties of Northampton, Bedford, Leicester, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, and in Cumberland and South Wales, the female slightly exceeds the male death-rate. The largest proportion of the deaths from rheumatic affections are recorded under the head of rheumatism, very few indeed being attributed to rheumatic fever.

K.—CARBUNCLE AND PHLEGMON.

The mortality occasioned by carbuncle and phlegmon is exceedingly inconsiderable, but it has been on the increase during the last eight or nine years. The largest proportion of the deaths are recorded under the name of phlegmon; but, as mistakes of registration are not improbable, the two diseases may most satisfactorily be considered together.

Conjointly, these diseases are most fatal in the South Midland counties, the Eastern counties, and the West Midland counties; least fatal in Monmouthshire and Wales. With these exceptions, there is great uniformity in the death-rates from carbuncle and phlegmon in the other great registration divisions of the country. There is greater diversity in the death-rates of the several counties. The mortality of males in Buckinghamshire and Northamptonshire is twice as high per 100,000 as the average mortality of England and Wales, eight times as high as the mortality of Monmouthshire and North Wales, and four times as high as the mortality of South Wales. The death-rates of Staffordshire, Hertfordshire, Cambridgeshire, Cornwall, Leicestershire, Northumberland, and Cumberland, exceed the death-rate of England and Wales. The death-rates of Bedfordshire, Gloucestershire, Lincolnshire, Cheshire, Durham, Monmouthshire, and North and South Wales, fall below the general average. The widest differences are in the male death-rates, the diversities in the female death-rates of different divisions and counties being much smaller. The mortality from these diseases is too small to admit of any accurate comparison of the death-rates

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of smaller districts, but the average seems at least to prove that urban influences do not aggravate the mortality from this cause. The evidence, such as it is, appears to indicate that the more sthenic condition of residents in rural places is favourable to these diseases rather than the more depressed state of the inhabitants of urban districts.

Thus far, our attention has been exclusively devoted to the varying rates of mortality from the several diseases in different places. It is now desirable, in conclusion, briefly to inquire into the proportion of the entire mortality produced by certain of the diseases comprised in this investigation in a few of the particular districts. The comparative death-rates of influenza have been already shown to be so unreliable; ague and carbuncle and phlegmon produce so small a mortality; and the proportion of deaths produced by croup, by apoplexy and paralysis, and by rheumatic fever and rheumatism, seem to be so little influenced by external circumstances, that they have been omitted from the present calculation. The main facts as regards croup, apoplexy and paralysis, and rheumatic fever and rheumatism, may be briefly summed up in a few sentences.

The proportion of deaths produced by croup varies from 4 in each 1,000 male deaths in Hull to 24 in Reeth. Ten deaths in each 1,000 are attributed to croup in England and Wales; fifteen in the North-western counties and in Monmouthshire and Wales, and only six in London and the Eastern counties. The proportion is usually somewhat less in the female than the male. The exceptions, so far as I have examined the subject, occur only in very small districts where accidental circumstances may readily modify the proportion. The number of deaths in each 1,000 male deaths from all causes produced by apoplexy and paralysis varies from 19 in Redruth and Wolverhampton, to 55 in Towcester, and 68 in New Forest. In every 1,000 male deaths in England and Wales, 37 are referable to apoplexy and paralysis; 39 in every 1,000 female deaths are produced by the same diseases. The proportions in London are—male, 39; female, 43; in the South-eastern counties—male, 48; female, 53; in the North-western counties—male, 28; female, 29. The proportions in Yorkshire are 33 in each 1,000 deaths, of both sexes; but, with this exception, the proportion of each 1,000 deaths of females produced by these diseases of more advanced life in large districts is larger than the proportion in the male; the exceptions, which occur only in small places, are probably referable to accidental circumstances. Rheumatic fever and rheumatism produce 4 in each 1,000 deaths of either sex in England and Wales, and the proportion varies little in the great divisions of the country. In the South Midland counties, the Eastern counties, and the South-western counties, the proportions are 4 male deaths and 3 female deaths in each 1,000 deaths of either sex from all causes. In Monmouthshire and Wales, the proportions are 4 male and 5 female deaths in every 1,000 deaths of each sex respectively: in the North-western counties, 3 male and 4 female deaths; and in the Northern counties, 3 male and 3 female deaths in each 1,000 deaths of either sex from all causes are referable to rheumatic affections. The proportion does not vary much from the general average in the larger districts, but is a little less in the great unhealthy cities, and sometimes a little more in healthier places. Three deaths in each 1,000 deaths of each sex are produced by rheumatic affections in Wolverhampton, Leeds, Wolstanton, and Redruth; in Liverpool, 2 female deaths, and not quite 2 male deaths, in each 1,000 deaths of either sex are produced by rheumatic fever and rheumatism; in Manchester,

2 male and 3 female deaths; in Birmingham, 4 male and 3 female deaths; and in Bristol and Macclesfield, 4 deaths in each 1,000 deaths of each sex are referable to the same cause.

It is necessary to recollect that the figures do not afford a comparative view of the rate of mortality in different districts. Thus, 47 in each 1,000 male deaths in Glendale are produced by typhus and erysipelas; 46 are produced by the same diseases in each 1,000 male deaths in Liverpool; but as the inhabitants of Liverpool die in a much larger proportion than those of Glendale, the actual proportion of deaths from typhus and erysipelas to the number of the living is much larger in Liverpool than in Glendale; the actual death-rates from the two diseases being 74 per 100,000 of the male inhabitants of Glendale, and 179 per 100,000 of the male inhabitants of Liverpool. It is, however, interesting to observe, that typhus and erysipelas produce very nearly the same proportion of the total mortality in England and Wales in several healthy districts, and in some of the unhealthiest towns in the kingdom. Thus although typhus often causes a larger proportion of deaths in unhealthy than in healthy places, it holds a subordinate position to several other causes of death in the production of a high death-rate. In England and Wales 47 in each 1,000 male deaths and 50 in each 1,000 female deaths are caused by typhus and erysipelas. The proportion is alike in both sexes in London, where 48 deaths in every 1,000 are referable to typhus and erysipelas. The proportions rise in the South Midland counties to 57 in each 1,000 male deaths and 65 in each 1,000 female deaths. They fall as low as 38 in each 1,000 male and 40 in each 1,000 female deaths in the Northern counties. The proportion falls between these extremes in most of the districts.

The chief variations in the proportion of deaths produced by particular classes of disease in each 1,000 deaths from all causes are observed in pulmonary affections, contagious diseases, alvine flux, and the nervous diseases of children. Contagious diseases are doubtless fatal to a larger proportion of the inhabitants of great cities, because, on the one hand, the proximity of persons favours the propagation of such diseases by contagion, and, on the other hand, measles and probably hooping-cough prove more fatal among a population already predisposed to suffer from pulmonary disease. Eighty-eight in every 1,000 male deaths, 92 in every 1,000 female deaths in England and Wales are referable to the group of contagious diseases. This average is considerably exceeded in London, the North-western counties, and Yorkshire, where in 1,000 deaths of either sex the proportions produced by these diseases are—London, male 106, female 110; the North-western counties, male 104, female 110; Yorkshire, male 92, female 100. The proportion is considerably under the average in the South-eastern and the South Midland counties, where the proportion in each 1,000 deaths of either sex produced by these diseases are—South-eastern counties, male 66, female 70; South Midland counties, male 67, female 68. The proportion in the several registration districts varies from 28 in every 1,000 male deaths and 31 in every 1,000 female deaths in Haltwhistle, to 132 in every 1,000 male and 131 in every 1,000 female deaths in Easington. Haltwhistle is, however, a small district as regards population, and Easington, for reasons already assigned, is rather an exceptional district. If the proportion of the entire mortality that is produced by the four contagious diseases in several large towns, as Liverpool, Manchester, Leeds, Birmingham, Bristol, and Hull, be compared with the

proportion in England and Wales or in the registration divisions in which these towns are situated, or in rural registration districts, it will be observed that the proportion of the general mortality caused by these diseases is occasionally smaller, and rarely much larger, in unhealthy towns than in rural and healthier places. Bearing in remembrance the observations already made respecting the proportion of the total mortality in certain places produced by fever and erysipelas, which are equally applicable to these diseases, this fact at least shows, that, although, in common with several other forms of disease, they contribute to the production, contagious diseases are not the principal cause, of high death-rates.

Out of every thousand male deaths in England and Wales, 409 are produced by the three groups of disease that throughout this paper have been called pulmonary affections, alvine flux, and the nervous diseases of children; 392 in each thousand female deaths are referable to the same causes. The proportion falls in Towcester and Glendale to 316 male and 360 female deaths in each 1,000 deaths of either sex in the former, and 204 male and 203 female deaths in the latter district. The proportions rise in London to 459 male and 427 female deaths in each 1,000 deaths of either sex respectively; in Birmingham, to 467 male and 427 female deaths; in Manchester, to 500 male and 479 female deaths; and in Liverpool, to 544 male and 548 female deaths in each 1,000 deaths of either sex respectively in each place.

In Glendale and Easington less than 1 male death in 7 is caused by pulmonary disease; in Hull and Houghton-le-Spring less than 1 male death in 5; in Leeds 1 male death in 4 is referable to the same cause. In Birmingham rather more, and in Liverpool a little less, than 2 in every 7 male deaths, and in Alston very nearly half of all the male deaths, are produced by pulmonary diseases. Twenty-two in every 1,000 deaths of both sexes in England and Wales during the septennial period were caused by the three diseases, diarrhoea, dysentery, and cholera. In London, the proportion of the general mortality produced by the three profusional diseases was much larger, 107 males and 114 females in every 1,000 deaths of either sex having perished from this class of diseases. Of the 20 registration districts contained in the table, Hull and Liverpool have had the largest proportion, and, exclusive of districts of small population, Macclesfield, Houghton-le-Spring, Redruth, Leek, and Carnarvon, have had the smallest proportion, of their entire mortality produced by the several forms of alvine flux. The proportion in each 1,000 male deaths caused by the nervous diseases of children varies from 27 in Glendale to 240 in Carnarvon. These diseases are the cause of 97 male deaths and of 78 female deaths in each 1,000 deaths of either sex in England and Wales. The proportion considerably exceeds the general average in Monmouthshire and Wales, in the North-western counties, the North Midland counties, and in Yorkshire; it falls a good deal below the general average in the South Midland counties, the South-western counties, and the Eastern counties. More than twice as many deaths in each 1,000 deaths from all causes are produced by the nervous diseases of children in Monmouthshire and Wales, the North-western counties, the North Midland counties, and Yorkshire, as in the South-western counties and the Eastern counties.

Pulmonary affections, alvine flux, and the nervous diseases of children are therefore the classes of disease which are both absolutely and relatively the chief causes of high death-rates. It is to the investigation of their

origin that sanitary inquiries may most advantageously be directed. It is from devising and adopting measures for the removal of their causes that we may most confidently hope for an amelioration in the public health. Any measures that should be successfully adopted for diminishing the mortality produced by these diseases would undoubtedly diminish that from other diseases likewise. Certain of the contagious diseases, although their amount might be undiminished, would at least fall with diminished intensity upon a healthier population; and the same would probably hold true of other diseases likewise.

It would be foreign to the intention of this paper to attempt any accurate description of the causes which increase the mortality produced by those diseases which are found to add most largely to the death-rolls of unhealthy places. In truth the precise nature of these causes is still a subject for investigation. It may, however, be asserted that they are multifarious; and that, whilst an impure atmosphere, whether the impurity arise from the defective removal of refuse and excrete matters, from the overcrowding of dwellings, or from manufacturing processes, is among the most powerful, there are many other causes of disease to which attention has hitherto been too little directed. Insufficient or unsuitable food, sedentary habits, the absence of the physical and mental stimulus afforded by variety of scene and especially by rural prospects, the weariness caused by the monotonous character of many occupations, and, not least, the cares and anxieties of life, are all of them causes which help to swell the catalogue of illness, and to add to the register of deaths in great cities. Some of these causes of preventable sickness and premature death arise necessarily from the circumstances of our social system, and are but little, if at all, under the control of the executive government. Notwithstanding their exclusion from the catalogue of removable causes of unhealthfulness, there would yet remain ample scope for the employment of hygienic measures. In the first place, however, and before sanitary science can make much further progress, it would be necessary to investigate the causes of excessive disease and mortality in a more analytical manner than has heretofore been done, for without a more precise and accurate acquaintance with their causes it would be impossible to employ the most certain means of prevention against the diseases which so largely aggravate the death-rates of certain districts.

One of the most evident facts brought to light by the present investigation is the influence of occupation on health. This influence is either direct, as in the case of the cutlers of Sheffield, the lead-miners of Alston, the lace-makers of Towcester and Bedford, or the silk-manufacturers of Macclesfield; or it is indirect, as where the employment of women in factories seems to aggravate the infantile mortality, and particularly that produced by the nervous diseases of childhood. It is probable that a careful examination into the nature of these employments, and the manner in which their hurtful results are produced, would show that such results are not the inevitable consequences of the several industrial occupations. Means may perhaps be devised whereby the inhalation of the dust and grit produced in certain operations, and of the flue given off in other processes, might be avoided. The labourers employed in the discharge of vessels freighted with guano contrive to avoid inhaling the irritating particles of dust with which the atmosphere they habitually breathe whilst at work is impregnated, by the use of a roughly made but perfect extemporaneous respirator, formed of a piece of oakum tied up in sail-cloth. Already there is a great

difference in the comparative amount of impurity in the atmosphere of different factories where the same processes are conducted. Doubtless the skill of engineers and machine-makers would enable them to invent still further improvements for the purpose of withdrawing mechanical particles from the air of work-places, if their necessity was insisted upon, and perhaps better ventilation and a lower temperature of working rooms might be found not incompatible with the successful prosecution of processes of manufacture. At Messrs. Copeland's pottery at Stoke, a new invention has been introduced which promises to remove one fertile source of bronchitis among the operatives.

It may be more difficult to deal with the other branch of this question. The withdrawal of children from their mothers' care and the consequent substitution of artificial feeding for the natural diet of infancy, which is probably one at least among the causes of a large infantile mortality in places where the female population are largely engaged in factory labour, is possibly an evil inherent in the modern factory system. Whether it can be met without an undue interference with the rights of labour is a question the consideration of which forms no part of my present duty.

NO. LVII.—LUNATIC ASYLUMS COMMISSION (IRELAND).

Report of the Commissioners of Inquiry into the State of the Lunatic Asylums and other Institutions for the Custody and Treatment of the Insane in Ireland.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of her Majesty.]

THE Commission was issued the 8th October, 1856, to Sir Thomas Redington, Knt.; Robert Andrews, Q. C.; Robert Wilfred; Skeffington Lutwidge, barrister-at-law; James Wilkes and Dominick John Corrigan, doctors of medicine. The Commissioners were directed to inquire into the state of the lunatic asylums and other institutions for the custody and treatment of the insane in Ireland, and also into the state of the law respecting lunatics and lunatic asylums, and they reported as follows:—

On the 1st January, 1857, there were 9,286 insane poor in Ireland, of whom 5,934 were maintained at the public cost, and 3,352 were insane poor at large, and unprovided for. Comparing the number of insane in Ireland, as given in the census of 1851, with the number given by the inspectors of lunatics in 1857, there seems to be a considerable increase in the amount of insanity in Ireland. The number of patients in licensed houses and benevolent institutions on the 1st January, 1857, was 459. The first steps taken in Ireland to provide for the reception of lunatic poor in public institutions dates from 1728, when Sir William Fownes, Lord Mayor of Dublin, caused cells to be erected in the workhouse for the reception of lunatics. In 1772 an Act was passed (11 & 12 Geo. III. c. 2) enabling work-houses to be established in any county or town in Ireland, with some small provisions for lunatics in the houses of industry thus established. But the first legislative enactment specifically directed to the support of the insane

was 27 Geo. III. c. 39 (1787), the eighth section of which enabled grand juries to present such sum of money as shall appear to them to be necessary for providing and supporting wards for the reception and support of such idiots and insane persons as shall be from time to time recommended by two or more magistrates of such county, on account of their being idiots or insane, and destitute of any means of support. Other Acts were subsequently passed, giving power to form new district and provincial asylums.

In the district asylums there are admitted, in addition to the lunatic poor, persons indicted, tried, and acquitted on the ground of insanity at the time of the commission of the crime; persons found by the jury to be insane on arraignment, and who cannot be tried; persons found insane, in like manner, when brought up to be discharged; persons under sentence of imprisonment or transportation, who had become insane; persons under warrant in default of surety to keep the peace, who are, or may become, insane; persons under committal for trial, and insane and dangerous lunatics committed as such by magistrates. The Commissioners gave a description of the internal government of such asylums, showed the defects exhibited by them as to dietary, clothing, cleanliness, &c., and recommended numerous changes. It was also suggested by them that the district asylums of Ireland should be made more available as educational establishments for the purpose of extending a knowledge of the nature and treatment of insanity.

In addition to the lunatic poor in the district asylums, there were 1,707 of them in the union workhouses. These places were most unsuitable for the detention of insane persons. Still some portions of the unappropriated accommodation in the union workhouses of Ireland might be available for quiet cases of imbecility or idiocy. The Commissioners expressed their opinion as to the total unfitness of gaols for any insane person, and they suggested that the justices should have power of committing criminals direct to the lunatic asylums. New asylums were recommended where they are wanting, and the control of the lunatic asylums and the superintendents of lunatics in Ireland was proposed to be placed under a Central Board, consisting of three salaried members, two of whom should be members of the medical and one of the legal profession, and a secretary.

Private asylums are also recognised by the 5 & 6 Vict. c. 123; but the system of licensing did not appear to the Commissioners to have worked well. They proposed that the power of issuing licences should rest with the Board of Commissioners. It seemed desirable to see institutions established for the reception of that class of lunatics whose social position places them above receiving support from public funds, or seeking to be maintained by private charities, and yet whose humble means will not admit of their being placed as single patients where funds as well as friends will not be wanting to ensure their comfort. The only asylum in Ireland which is neither supported by local rate nor out of public taxes, and which at the same

time is not kept for profit by any private individual, is St. Patrick's Hospital, founded by Dean Swift, under the direction of a committee of the Society of Friends, and St. Vincent's Asylum, Richmond. The income of St. Patrick's Hospital, for the year ending 31st March, 1856, was 5,212*l.* 13*s.* The hospital was originally founded by Dean Swift for the reception of as many idiots and lunatics as the annual income of the property bequeathed would be sufficient to maintain. The number of patients accommodated in the hospital in 1857, was 66 free, and 83 paying. The reception of paying patients enabled the Governors to accumulate the sum of 20,000*l.*, the interest of which is available for the support of the institution. The Commissioners recommended that the hospital should be under the control of the Board of Commissioners in everything except the management of the property. The Bloomfield retreat is a small asylum in the vicinity of Dublin, maintained by the Society of Friends, and under the direction of a committee of that body. This retreat, as well as the St. Vincent's Asylum, was recommended to be placed under the same laws as may be passed in reference to private asylums. As regards Chancery lunatics, the Commissioners recommended that in all cases the proceedings in lunacy should originate, as at present, in a petition to the Lord Chancellor; but the commission *de lunatico inquirendo* should issue to the Central Board of Commissioners, or to any two of them, and that they should have power to sit in any part of the country, as occasion might require. They should hold their inquiry without the intervention of a jury, except in special cases. They should make a return to the Lord Chancellor in the same manner as the Commissioners have hitherto done; which finding should be liable to traverse. If the return be unopposed or the traverse fail, the lunatic should thenceforward be placed, as regards matters connected with his person, under the guardianship of the Central Board. The Commissioners should appoint the committee of his person, fix the place of his residence, and, with the approval of the Lord Chancellor, the allowance for his maintenance. In cases where the annual income or the net amount of the property is small, the Commissioners, on application in writing, certified by two justices, and accompanied by a medical report showing the presumed insanity of the party, should be empowered to hold an inquiry into the state of mind of the person represented as being insane, and that they should certify to the insanity of the party. The assistant barrister, on production of such certificate and on application, should make such order relative to the possession and use of the lunatic's property during his lunacy as he may think fit, and should order the payment thereof annually of such sum as the Commissioners might allow as proper for the lunatic's maintenance.

As to lunatics otherwise located and at large, the Commissioners proposed that the constabulary and police should have power to arrest and bring before a magistrate every person wandering at large and deemed to be a lunatic, and that every justice of the peace should have power, on

sworn information, to cause such person to be brought before him: and further, that every constable and relieving officer having a knowledge thereof should be required to give information on oath before a magistrate of the case of any person, though not wandering at large, who is deemed to be a lunatic and is not under proper care and control, or is cruelly treated or neglected by any relative or person having the care or charge of him; and that thereupon the magistrate shall himself visit or cause to be brought before him the alleged lunatic, and if he think fit shall call upon any legally qualified physician, surgeon, or apothecary to visit or examine him, and if satisfied from the report of such medical practitioner in writing, and his own personal observation, that the person is a wandering lunatic, or, though not wandering, is a lunatic and not under proper care, or is improperly treated or neglected by those who have care or charge of him, that it may be lawful for the magistrate to direct his removal to the lunatic asylum of the district.

The report was signed by all the Commissioners.

No. LVIII.—HEALTH OF THE NAVY.

Statistical Report of the Health of the Royal Navy for the Year 1856. (Mr. Corry.) 26th July, 1858. (473.)

THE number of vessels and mean force on the different stations were as follow:—In the home station there were 58 vessels with a mean force of 12,445 men. In the Mediterranean, 63 vessels with a mean force of 11,090 men. In the West Indies, there were 37 vessels with 7,845 men. On the East Coast of America, there were ten vessels with a mean force of 1,200 men. In the Pacific, there were 14 vessels with a force of 2,680 men. On the West Coast of Africa, there were 21 vessels employed for the suppression of the slave trade with 1,630 men. Off the Cape of Good Hope there were 5 vessels with 890 men. The squadron on the East India and China station consisted of 12 vessels with 3,410 men. In the Australian sea there were five vessels with 540 men. And on special duties and irregular stations there were 73 vessels with a force of 10,000 men. The total force was 51,730 men. The number of cases on board in the different stations was as follows:—Home, 13,776; Mediterranean, 15,153; West Indies, 12,178; South-east Coast of America, 2,697; Pacific, 4,102; West Coast of Africa, 3,060; Cape of Good Hope, 1,041; East Indies and China, 6,587; Australia, 771; and Irregular, 13,830: total, 73,195. The average number of men sick per diem on board, and in hospitals was—Home, 715·6, or 57·5 per 1,000; Mediterranean, 569·9, or 51·4 per 1,000; West Indies, 399·9, or 51·7 per 1,000; South-east Coast of America, 83·6, or 69·7 per 1,000; Pacific, 137, or 51·1 per 1,000; West Coast of Africa, 191·5, or 62·7 per 1,000; Cape of Good Hope, 45, or 50·7 per 1,000; East Indies and

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China, 339·5, or 99·5 per 1,000; Australia, 27·9, or 51·7 per 1,000; Irregular, 720·3, or 72 per 1,000: total, 3132·4, or 61·7 per 1,000.

The total number of men invalided in the whole force was 995, or 19½ per 1,000 of mean force; and the causes of invaliding were as follow:—phthisis, 103; hernia, 97; rheumatism, 92; injuries, 80; debility, 69; epilepsy, 63; inflammation of lungs and pleura, 44; palpitation, 41; ulcer, 35; varix, 29; continued and remittent fever, 25; insanity, 26; syphilis, 23; stricture, 27; cataract, 22; disease of heart, 30; dysentery, 19; scrofula, 16; ankylosis, 13; diarrhœa, 10; abscess, 11; dropsy, 11; all other causes, 113. The number of deaths from diseases was 629, of whom 199 were from continued and remittent fever; 131 from phthisis; 64 from dysentery; 43 from inflammation of the lungs; 39 from disease of heart and aorta; 25 from apoplexy; 14 from delirium tremens; 19 from diarrhœa; 12 from cholera; and 76 from other causes. There were, moreover, 172 deaths from being killed in action, and from other accidents.

The aggregate loss of service through wounds and sickness in the entire service, estimated at 51,730, was about equal to 3,132 men, or in the ratio of 61·7 per 1,000, which exceeds the loss in the metropolitan and city police by a little more than one-third. These, it is assumed, are the only bodies of men beside the navy in which this mode of estimating the extent of sickness has been adopted. When the nature of the naval service is taken into consideration, and the employment of a large proportion of the force within the tropics, and in regions highly detrimental to the European constitution, this excess in the ratio of sickness is by no means so great as might have been anticipated; for, although the police force may be exposed to the inclemencies of the weather while on night duty, so also are the seamen of the navy: the former are well protected by waterproof clothing, and when relieved from their beat, retire to warm, comfortable barrack-rooms or to their homes, where they can obtain warm food and drink, and dry their clothes; whereas the latter, in consequence of the active nature of their duties, must, for the most part, remain exposed to the pelting of the rain and spray in their ordinary clothing; and when relieved, retire to their hammocks or berths between decks, where it is seldom they can either dry their clothes or obtain, especially during the night-time, any kind of warm food or refreshment. There is, however, another cause which tends to keep down the ratio of sickness in the police force, namely, the stoppage of a shilling a day out of each man's pay, so long as he is unfit for duty from ill-health; this is not the practice in the navy; consequently, in the one force it is the interest of every man to keep out of the sick list as long as possible; whereas, in the other, indolent men and malingerers generally remain on it as long as they can impose on the medical officers. The majority of the police force are married men, consequently they are not so liable to contract syphilitic disease as the seamen and marines of the navy, especially those who are permitted to land on liberty in the home ports; on the whole, therefore, the high rate of sickness estimated by the loss of service in the navy, compared with the apparently more healthy condition of the police force, is to be ascribed to these and other causes, rather than to a greater amount of actual disease.

The total number of men invalided in the service afloat during the year

1856, amounted to 998, or in the proportion of 19·3 to the 1,000 of mean force. The greatest loss under this head, singularly enough, occurred on the Australian station, where the mortality from disease was the lowest. This, however, should not be regarded as a general rule; for the high rate of the present year was caused principally by the appearance of dysentery in one vessel, and epidemic dropsy in another: the former a disease of rare occurrence in any part of Australasia, and the latter, one that may never again make its appearance in any ship or community in any part of the world.

The rate of invaliding was likewise high on the West Coast of Africa, on the Cape of Good Hope, and on the Brazilian station; on each of these the number of men invalided appears to have been absolutely about three times greater than on the Home station, or in the force irregularly employed. This may be ascribed partly to the non-appearance of those tropical diseases amongst the latter which are so destructive of health in the squadrons on the West Coast of Africa and Cape stations, and partly to the facilities that exist for sending men to the home hospitals from ships on the Home station, and from those of the force irregularly employed; for the latter were seldom absent for any great length of time from England. It is, however, difficult to assign any reason for the high rate of invaliding on the Brazil station, which, but for the introduction of yellow fever, is one of the most healthy regions in the world.

The ratio of mortality in 1,000 of mean force from disease alone, ranged from 5·6 on the Australian, to 26·9 on the East India and China station. On the former there were only three deaths during the year; one from phthisis, and two from dysentery, the latter being the only loss sustained from diseases of a local or climatorial character; both these cases occurred in one ship, and were contracted at the same place, namely, on one of the Fejee Islands, the only locality on the whole station where Europeans appear to suffer from this or from any other form of intertropical disease. The high death-rate, 26·9 to the 1,000, on the East India and China station was chiefly owing to the destructive ravages of dysenteric complaints in the vessels stationed in the estuaries of the large rivers in China, for more than half the total mortality from disease was the result of these maladies. The ratio of deaths from continued and remitting fever was also high, though it did not greatly exceed the average of former years when it was not requisite for the force to enter the Chinese rivers, or the average mortality from this form of fever on other intertropical stations. It should be borne in mind that yellow fever has not yet been introduced into any region to the eastward of the Cape of Good Hope. How long it may be excluded from the Asiatic continent, must depend on the restrictions put on infected vessels sailing westward from the coast of America to the various groups of islands forming the Polynesian Archipelago, and thence to the eastern shores of Asia and New Holland; for there is little probability that it will ever be carried round Cape Horn from the eastern shores of South America, or round the Cape of Good Hope from the western coast of Africa, in consequence of the cold generally experienced in these regions, and the length of the voyage in either case; nor is it likely to be taken across the African continent, at least for many years, in consequence of the absence of the white races in the interior. It may therefore be safely predicted, that as cholera, cradled in the east, passed westward through Europe to America, so yellow fever, the peculiar scourge of a few warm regions in the west,

will travel eastward from America, until it reaches the European communities settled on the banks of the Ganges.

Next to the East India and China station, the greatest mortality from disease occurred on the North American and West Indian command, namely, 22·6 to the 1,000 of mean force. The excess in this instance is entirely to be ascribed to the introduction of yellow fever into four vessels of the squadron; for if they had kept aloof from the ports where it existed, or even steamed rapidly away to the northward as soon as it made its appearance amongst their crews, the mortality from disease would have differed but little from that which took place in the Mediterranean, where the death-rate was in the proportion of about 10 to the 1,000 of mean force.

The ratio of deaths from disease on the Brazilian station is unusually high, namely, 15 to the 1,000 of mean force; but in this instance the excess is also to be ascribed to the eruption, or rather the introduction, of yellow fever into one vessel while she lay at Rio de Janeiro; for, exclusive of the mortality in this vessel and from this disease, the death-rate in the remaining vessels from all other diseases did not exceed 3·5 to the 1,000 of mean force, which more nearly approximates the average mortality in the squadron on this station previously to the importation of yellow fever into the Brazils. The mortality from disease on the West Coast of Africa was in the proportion of 12·2 to the 1,000 of mean force, which exceeds the loss on the Mediterranean station by about a sixth only; the excess appears to have been due principally to the fatal character of a few cases of periodic fever contracted on shore, for yellow fever did not make its appearance on the coast or in any of the cruisers during the year.

The mortality from disease in the Mediterranean was higher than on the Home station, inasmuch as 10·0 exceeds 8·4. Fevers were nearly three times more destructive of life in the former than on the latter, but the reverse was the case as regards inflammatory affections of the respiratory and alimentary organs. The mortality from disease in the squadron employed in the Pacific, on the East Coast of Africa, and at the Cape, and in the force employed irregularly, was about the same as in civil life in this country, namely, 6·8 per 1,000 for the first, and 7·9 for the two last. There was no death from fever, either in the Pacific or on the Cape station. Phthisis was more destructive of life on the former than were all the other diseases together; this does not, however, appear to have been the result of any general or climatorial cause, but rather of the accidental or chance development of a greater number of cases in the force than usual.

The total number of deaths from disease in the whole service afloat amounted to 629, or in the ratio of 12·1 to each 1,000 of mean force; a death-rate, considering the mortality from yellow fever, accidentally contracted by a few small vessels, which must be considered low, even when compared with the mortality occurring amongst men in civil life in this country. Deducting the deaths from yellow fever, because it is a disease which generally may be avoided, or, if contracted, speedily arrested, the ratio of deaths arising from all ordinary diseases consequent on climate, the nature of the service, and the habits peculiar to men living in ships of war, would not have exceeded 9·6 to the 1,000 of mean force.

The number of deaths from accidental injuries and drowning were about three times more numerous than they appear to have been for many consecutive years in the army, and probably forty times more numerous than

they are in civil life ; this, at all events, as regards the latter, will be sufficiently obvious when it is stated that on an average, in every 5 deaths that occurred in the naval service during the year 1856, 1 was of a violent nature.

Nine men were killed in action with the Chinese, 61 were killed or died of accidental wounds and injuries, 87 were drowned, 14 committed suicide, and 1 was frozen to death, making a total of 172 deaths, or in the proportion of 3·3 to every 1,000 of mean force. Of the killed by external violence, 12 were marines, and 75 were blue jackets ; and of the drowned, 9 were marines, and 86 were blue jackets. As the total number of marines serving afloat amounted to 8,544, and the deaths from external violence and drowning amounted to 21, it follows that the mortality under this head was in the ratio of 2·5 per 1,000 of force, while amongst all other classes serving afloat it amounted to 3·7. But to make a fair comparison of the relative mortality from accidents occurring while engaged in their ordinary duties, it will be necessary to deduct 8 marines killed in action, from the total number of deaths in that body, which reduces the mortality to 13, and the death-rate to 1·5, thus showing that the blue jackets as a class, owing to the nature of their occupation on board ship, are much more liable to be killed by accident than the marines.

The mortality from all causes, namely, 15·5 to the 1,000 of mean force, compared with the mortality in civil life in England, may be regarded as high ; but to make a just comparison, it will be necessary to strike off from the accidental deaths in the navy at least two-thirds, as well as the deaths from yellow fever ; this would reduce the total mortality in the whole service afloat to about 10 per 1,000 annually from all causes ; it is therefore clearly evident that, even including the deaths caused by endemic diseases peculiar to the East and West Coasts of Africa, the East Indies, China, and the West Indies, the mortality in the naval service from all ordinary causes is about the same as in the more healthy communities of men living on shore.

The most fatal disease in the naval force during 1856 was fever ; 199 cases terminated in death, or nearly 25 per cent. of the total mortality ; 130 of these deaths were the result of yellow fever, of which 105 occurred in five small vessels. Four of these vessels were employed in the West Indies, and one on the Brazilian station, thus showing how the introduction of a fatal disease into a few vessels, not forming a fiftieth part of the force, may influence the death-rate in the naval service.

Five deaths occurred from exanthematous diseases, and 55 from diseases of the brain ; the latter forms 6·9 per cent. of the total mortality. Next to fever, consumptive diseases were most destructive of life, the deaths being in the ratio of 2·7 per 1,000 of mean force.

The total deaths from disease of the respiratory organs amounted to 175, consequently they formed 21·9 per cent. of the total mortality ; 4·9 per cent. of the deaths occurred from disease of the heart and blood-vessels, and 13·4 from diseases of the alimentary canal. Of 64 deaths from dysentery, 48 occurred in the vessels employed on the coast of China.

21·5 per cent. of the total deaths occurred from accidental injuries, wounds received in action, drowning and suicide, and 78·5 from disease, the former being in the proportion of about 1 to 5 of the latter. In the civil population of London (and it is to be presumed the ratio does not greatly differ in other large communities of men), the proportion of violent deaths to deaths from disease amongst men between the ages of 30 and 40 does

not, according to the Registrar General's reports, exceed 1 in 40. It is, therefore, not a little surprising, that with all the additional risks of life in the navy, the mortality in the whole force should so little exceed the mortality in civil life.

The following observations are on the yellow fever in the West India station:—

The total number of cases of yellow fever amounted to about 459, and of these, 114 proved fatal—more than one-half the total mortality in the force for the year from all causes—and of these deaths 92 occurred in four vessels, namely, in the *Malacca*, *Hermes*, *Argus*, and *Termagant*, for it was in these vessels only that the fever became general, or acquired epidemic force. The majority of the remaining deaths from this form of fever occurred in the naval hospitals at Port Royal and Bermuda, where patients, labouring under other diseases or injuries, were occasionally attacked by yellow fever, and a few cases were contracted by men who had been on shore at Port Royal, and at Kingston, Jamaica. In consequence of the great extent of the latter city, and the continual arrival of new comers from Europe and America, it is seldom that it is free from yellow fever. One case or group of cases succeeds another, so that the poison-germs are inhaled and again reproduced before there is time for them to die out, or pass away from the locality. In the same manner the disease has now for several years been kept in existence at Rio de Janeiro; for, from the time it was first introduced, it has never become extinct, in consequence of the successive arrival of white men from the more temperate regions of the globe. In smaller communities, such as exist on the islands of Boa Vista, Ascension, Goree, and Fernando Po, where the arrivals of unacclimated Europeans or Americans are few and far between, the disease, when imported, speedily attacks all the susceptible part of the population, and then entirely disappears. The infectious germs, left without the proper kind of soil in which they most readily take root, are soon scattered, and become extinct. In the same manner, when the cold of winter puts an end to the disease in the more northern sea-ports of the United States, it does not again make its appearance, unless re-imported by some infected ship. It has already been seen that the fever was introduced into the *Malacca* and *Argus* at Port-au-Prince, that these vessels carried it to Port Royal, Jamaica, and that subsequently it broke out in the *Termagant* and *Hermes*; but whether the fever in these vessels was an offshoot from the fever in the *Malacca*, or from some other infectious source at Kingston or Port Royal, there is no means of ascertaining. It is, however, time that the hazardous opinions respecting the non-infectious nature of this malady were more clearly established. If, as was supposed, the fever in each of these vessels had arisen from peculiar states of the weather, from marsh or swamp emanations, or from causes other than a personal poison, it is inconceivable why it did not break out in other vessels lying in the same ports; for although it is easy to understand how their crews might escape an infectious poison existing only in circumscribed localities, it is not possible to imagine how they could escape from the influence of causes so generally diffused as those called atmospheric, or from marsh malaria.

As yellow fever did not attack the crew of any vessel unless they had communication with some place where it existed, as it ceased to attack the crews of vessels lying in Port Royal harbour when the men were not permitted to go on shore on leave, and as it speedily became extinct in those

vessels, the crews of which were attacked, when they ran out of the tropics into colder latitudes, it is clear that, by adopting the precautions which these several facts suggest, the mortality from this disease may for the future be greatly reduced. Experience has long since shown that no worse expedient can be adopted for arresting the progress of yellow fever in ships of war than clearing out the hold within the tropics; for, however foul the latter may be, no reasonable proof can be adduced that impurities, or even accumulation of offensive filth, has ever given rise to yellow fever in any ship of war. The total number of cases of the common endemic or remitting fever amounted to about 907, and of these, 11 only terminated in death, a remarkable contrast to the mortality from the more malignant yellow type, the deaths being in the proportion of one to every four cases in the latter, and one to about every eighty cases in the former. By far the greatest number of the cases of remitting and intermitting fever were contracted at Greytown, where there are extensive swamps formed by the alluvial deposit brought down by the river Nicaragua; of the 11 deaths under this head, 8 occurred from fever contracted at Greytown, or, at all events, on the coast of Central America.

Yellow Fever in Jamaica.—By the reports from the medical officers at the naval hospital, Port Royal, and from the different ships anchoring from time to time in the harbour, it appears that from the commencement of the year, and for some time previously, yellow fever had been of frequent occurrence amongst unacclimated Europeans and Americans residing in Kingston, Spanish Town, at Port Royal, in the several military stations in the south-eastern parts of Jamaica, and amongst the crews of merchant vessels, who were mixing with the population. Accordingly, when the *Powerful* arrived from England, and after the greater number of her men had been on shore on leave, rambling over the lowest parts of Kingston and Port Royal, and frequenting the same haunts as the men from the merchant shipping, several of her men contracted the disease, and were sent on shore to the hospital. Subsequently the crews of the *Arab* and *Argus* were allowed to go on shore, and having committed the same kind of imprudences, several cases of yellow fever occurred amongst both ships' companies, and several terminated in death in the naval hospital, thus assisting to keep up and reproduce the morbid virus. The *Argus*, however, it should be borne in mind, imported the disease from Port-au-Prince. On the 22nd of April the assistant-surgeon of the *Hermes*, after exposure on shore, and keeping late hours, was seized with the fever, and sent to the hospital, where he died. Four days after his seizure, the *Malacca* arrived from Port-au-Prince, with a large number of her people ill of the disease, who were forthwith sent to the hospital; and as the fever continued to prevail in the ship, they were followed by many others.

Up to this date, the deputy inspector reports, on information obtained from the medical authorities of the army, that cases were occurring occasionally at Stoney-hill Barracks, and among the merchant seamen, and newly arrived residents in Kingston. It is thus evident that the contagious germs of the fever were successively produced in various places; and although it cannot be shown that none were attacked but those who were exposed to infection, still it is certain that no case of yellow fever occurred in any of the ships of war which did not communicate with infected places.

The crew of the *Termagant* were next infected at Port Royal, and two

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or three cases occurred in the dockyard, which, however, were ascribed to other causes than contagion. Five out of six patients labouring under other diseases in Port Royal Hospital, who occupied a ward separated from the yellow-fever patients, were attacked, and one died. Five of these patients had been sent from the *Mariner*, in which, however, there did not occur a single case of the yellow pestilence. These five cases were probably the result of infection inhaled by the patients while in the hospital, and such was the opinion of the chief medical officer of the establishment.

The crew of the *Hermes* was next attacked by the fever after they had been granted leave, and had run the gauntlet of intemperance throughout the wretched dens of vice in Kingston and Port Royal. A case or two afterwards occurred amongst the crew of the *Imaum*, later in the year. During October and November the disease became more general, not only amongst the European residents on shore, but also amongst creoles; but the crews of the men-of-war frequenting the harbour of Port Royal escaped, in consequence, as mentioned by the staff surgeon of the hospital, of their not being allowed to go on shore on leave.

Yellow Fever at Bermuda.—According to reports received from the Deputy Inspector of Hospitals and Fleets, "yellow fever began to make its appearance on these islands in August; it was first recognized on the 5th of the latter month on the island of Somerset, and for some time was confined to some small cottages situated on the margin, or in the immediate neighbourhood, of a long shallow creek, with a large surface of muddy bottom, exposed at low water. Up to the 12th there had been nine cases, three of which were attended with black vomit, and ended in death. The weather, for some time previously, had been dry and temperate for the latitude, so that, whatever the cause may have been, it could not be ascribed to the state of the weather. The disease soon spread, and became epidemic in Warwick, in Boaz, and St. George's Islands. Contrary to former epidemics, it was more fatal and severe amongst the coloured people than amongst the Europeans, and prevailed more extensively in swampy localities than in the dry." Whether the disease had been introduced by the *Malacca*, which left the islands on the 29th of June, there is no means of ascertaining; but it is quite possible that a succession of slight cases may have occurred throughout July, previously to the eruption of the cases on the banks of the creek in Somerset. Be this as it may, the appearance of the fever, in this instance, is no exception to the well-established fact, that it has seldom or never broken out in any island or ship, or amongst any isolated community of men living on shore, for at least the last fifty years, unless there had previously been either direct or indirect communication with an infected ship or locality. Hence the necessity of a more rigid observance of the quarantine laws.

NO. LIX.—HEALTH OF THE ARMY.

Medical and Surgical History of the British Army which served in Turkey and the Crimea during the War against Russia in the Years 1854-56.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

THE two volumes, comprising a complete account of the health of the British army which served in the Russian war in the Crimea, contain,

1st, the military medical history of individual corps of which the army was composed; 2ndly, a history of diseases, and of wounds and injuries treated during the period the troops served in Turkey, Bulgaria, and the Crimea; lastly, a variety of reports, returns, diagrams, and other documents in relation to the various subjects referred to. Instead of giving any portion of the particulars connected with the health of separate corps, or with the history of the numerous diseases prevalent in the camps, we subjoin the concluding observations of Dr. Hanbury Matthews, founded on the numerous materials thus compiled.

Although an intimate connection between war and pestilence has been too frequently observed, the relation is by no means invariable; for it occasionally occurs that troops on service enjoy almost the same standard of health which falls to the lot of soldiers in garrison; and, sometimes, whole campaigns are so peculiar as to be marked by the same immunity from disease. The knowledge of this fact not only assures us that it is our duty particularly to investigate the causes of disease when this breaks forth, but inspires us with the hope that some of them, at least, may be found of a nature not necessarily incidental to service in the field. The inquiry itself suggests the significant expression—"diseases of armies," by informing us of something peculiar in them, and proving that they occasionally present features, for the most part, not much observed in civil life.

The diseases, however, which affect armies engaged in active service, are few in number; and these, whether they occur in rare instances, or assume an endemic prevalence, often acknowledge the causes usually noticed. Thus, in the summer and autumn months of most continental climates, and in the insular positions of tropical latitudes, sources of malaria abound, and the intermittent and remittent types of fever and dysentery are, of course, found to prevail. In the winter seasons of cold climates diarrhoea and dysentery, pulmonary, catarrhal, and rheumatic inflammations are general, and consequently attend upon military operations. Ophthalmia, in circumstances of exposure to intense heat and light, with frequent dust storms, and the application of cold and moist winds at night, is endemic to populations at large, and sometimes render particular regiments on service to a great extent ineffective. In these, and other instances, it would be easy to enumerate only simple, and, as it were, elementary results, and to account for their appearance, even to a considerable extent, we need not look beyond the ordinary causes of disease, acting with unusual intensity. If we seek, however, not only to determine the causes most prominently engaged in the production of disease, but, moreover, endeavour to take cognizance of the extraordinary modifications and the altered characters which it in other cases so prominently exhibits, then we shall be made to understand that the particular conditions of service constitute at once not only true exciting causes of disease, as on ordinary occasions, but, at the same time, and when acting for a considerable period, are concerned in producing a state of the system which materially modifies disease in its expression, and increases its prevalence and mortality, whether depending on such conditions alone, or upon these conjointly with other causes of a more specific and exceptional kind, viz., marsh miasmata, tainted air, unhealthy season or climate; that, in fact, the peculiarities, and distinguishing character, which belong to the diseases of armies so often, are

not so much the result of the ordinary conditions of service acting as direct causes of disease, nor of the special causes just mentioned, for these are only attended with effects, in general similar to those observed in the civil communities (regard being paid to former habits of life, &c.) of different countries; but they are, on the contrary, to be referred mainly to those unusual conditions of service, marked by excessive exposure to wet and cold, to heat and moisture by day and night, by the protracted use of a defective diet—inconstant exertion, and fatigue—all of which concur in inducing a state of the blood, and of the functions, in deference to which disease, however originated, presents new phases and altered characters. It is, therefore, of importance that we should state generally, but briefly, the manner in which these agencies modify disease, and render them peculiar when acting with unusual intensity for a considerable period, and in what consists those modifications which give to them their exceptional character among troops in the field.

1. The ordinary effects of excessive hardship, and the application of cold and wet in the usual circumstances of private life, we have daily opportunities of witnessing. According to the age and habit of body of the patient, season, &c., the results will be rheumatism, diarrhoea, pneumonia, bronchitis, peritonitis, fever, &c., with more or less *asthenia* and *asthenia* in different cases, and they accord with those generally noticed in armies employed in military operations. It will naturally, however, sometimes occur that the causes of disease just referred to, will be applied to the soldier engaged in active service in a manner unusually protracted and severe; and as they are essentially of a debilitating character, the very forcible and continued action of them (here supposed) must render prevalent the *asthenic diathesis*, which in itself will tend to give them, as it were, a geometrically increasing influence, and modify the manifestations of particular affections; but as a concomitant of this *asthenia*, there necessarily exists an impoverished and vitiated state of the blood, consequent upon unusual waste of tissue, through excessive labour and imperfection of the depurating functions (cutaneous and respiratory) from the application of cold and wet; and diseases will, therefore, not only be characterized by the amount of vital force which they exhibit, but certain affections will begin to claim pre-eminence in the frequency of their occurrence and exhibit unusual features. Thus it is observed, that the inflammations of parenchymatous structures, or of those implying some degree of *sthenic* power, as pneumonia, &c., under these circumstances of protracted exposure and exertion, are marked by very *adynamic* symptoms and of rare occurrence, nor is articular acute rheumatism (fibrine as an element of the blood being defective) often noticed. Bronchitic ailments supersede instances of pulmonary disease, and is of the *asthenic*, moist variety; dysentery changes from the “catarrhal” inflammatory kind to a persistent unmanageable form of the affection; fever is attended with want of power in the circulating organs, great lesion of the functions of organic life; and diarrhoea, degenerating into dysentery, would appear to usurp the place of many other diseases, and to assume an importance very striking and peculiar.

But although such are the modifications which disease is disposed to assume, when the soldier on service suffers for a considerable time from unusual hardships and excessive exposure, yet the fact being thus recognized, we must now further observe, that these modifications are seldom very conspicuously noticed, nor do the ailments which afford illustration of

them, become very general and destructive, unless the influence of defective diet be superadded to that of the other causes alluded to. Indeed it would seem that the concurring influence of inadequate food is almost necessary to the production of these effects in any great or alarming degree; nor is it easy to conceive how they could have a considerable place if troops in the field were provided with varied, abundant, and highly nutritious food; unfortunately it almost invariably happens on "service" that extraordinary hardship and exposure for a protracted period involve much inattention to the nature of the soldier's food and difficulty and irregularity in providing it, and it is almost impossible to see troops suffering from the former independent of the latter. A few words, therefore, on defective diet as a co-operating agency, and the part it plays in exaggerating the special results now indicated, are here necessary.

Whatever may be the influence attributed to excessive exposure and unusual hardships as direct causes of disease in cold latitudes and in the winter season of temperate climates, and however much their protracted action may serve to generate a state of the system constituting in itself an internal modifying agency in its production, in the way above explained, it cannot be doubted, that insufficient and defectively composed diet is often, *per se*, the great and essential agent in the production of that deterioration of the blood—of that feeble vitality, in which this pathological cause consists. This is apparent in the emaciation and debility, the scorbutic pains in the legs and feet, the petechial spots, the livid and swollen gums, and the more pathognomonic signs of scurvy, which invariably attend upon diseases undergoing these modifications, and distinguish them from the ordinary effects of cold, wet, and hardship, and of which modifications these symptoms, indeed, comprise a great part; and were we further to inquire how it occurs that pleuritic or peritoneal inflammation, pneumonia, and acute bronchitis, catarrhal acute dysentery, &c., as common results of exposure and hardship, give place, in the unusual conditions supposed, to diarrhoea and dysentery of an asthenic, unmanageable form—to fever of a putro-adyamic kind, complicated by extravasations and visceral congestions—we might probably be led to the conclusion, that these ailments are more an illustration of morbid physiology, if the expression be allowed, than of strictly diseased action; that the design of nature in them is one of elimination of noxious and useless matters introduced into the blood, or allowed to remain in it through an impaired or perverted state of the functions; and that, moreover, the general taint of scurvy in such cases observed, and yet the rare occurrence of this disease in an aggravated form, is to be explained on the supposition, that the materials proper to its overt and formal development are carried away by the process of diarrhoea (dysentery) or the febrile reactionary accession. Thus, then, it may be affirmed that the ordinary causes of disease—viz., exposure to cold and wet, exertion and fatigue—when applied in an intensified and continued manner, have a tendency to issue, at length, in a state of the system which imparts to them unusual and extremely prejudicial effects; that these effects constitute the peculiarities which the "diseases of armies" present, in so far as they arise from causes of no unusual description—the common exciting kind; that the state of the system which determines such modifications is derived, in a great degree, from the use of defective diet, and that it is marked by depraved, vitiated, and impoverished state of the blood, deficient cohesion and wasting of muscular fibre, hebetude of the mental faculties, defective.

performance of the functions of organic life, general debility, and emaciation—-independent of the special symptoms of disease. The truth of these propositions is demonstrated by the results of military experience so constantly reproduced as to be regarded at last as nearly inevitable—as the natural lot of the soldier engaged in military operations; but, nevertheless, the converse of them is presented with an equal degree of certainty, for the modifications of disease now spoken of disappear one by one, diarrhoea and dysentery lose their engrossing importance, and instances of sthenic pneumonia, acute articular rheumatism, and other diseases denoting a higher physical condition and more energetic performance of the vital functions, become more frequent as the conditions of the service with regard to labour, night-watching, shelter, and clothing improve—as the diet of the soldier is being rendered what it ever should be, abundant, varied, and nutritious.

2. Again, in warm latitudes, and the hot season of temperate climates, fever, dysentery, and diarrhoea represent the diseases incident to the ordinary circumstances of life; and their prevalence and mortality are proportional to the intensity of the causes existing in healthy or unhealthy season and climate, favourable or unfavourable locality, modes of life, and other conditions, which determine the sanitary state of different places and communities; but when the nature of service in the field implies protracted marches, constant watching, great fatigue, exposure to a hot sun by day with inadequate clothing, to cold heavy dews at night with insufficient accommodation and bedding, the soldier experiences disease to an extent greatly in excess of the usual effects exhibited, and it assumes new and more serious phases and graver characters, which are still further intensified and increased if, to the operation of the ordinary causes thus acting in a degree excessively severe, there be added the influence of defective or innutritious food. The fluxes are represented in dysentery of an asthenic, putro-adynamic, and, it may be, hæmorrhagic and gangrenous character. Fever acquires an epidemic prevalence, is marked by gastro-intestinal irritation, followed by rapid sinking, failure of organic nervous function, effusions, sudden congestions, encephalic complication, and sudden death; and moreover (according to the mode of combination of the causes, or the predominating intensity of some of them), it would appear to be closely related to dysentery, for each of these affections is presented in particular cases, and in precisely similar conditions, each occasionally supplanting, or giving place to the other, as the special clinical phenomenon.

In the instance of disease becoming prevalent and fatal among armies in hot climates, the influence of defective and innutritious food is not usually well indicated by the characteristic symptoms of the scorbutic taint, or by the amount of extension which formal overt scurvy acquires; but its co-operation in producing the general effect is evidenced in the fact, that fever is complicated often by sudden hæmorrhages, that dysentery is not amenable to the usual remedies, particularly the mercurial preparations, and that, unless the conditions of the service meantime undergo a great change and improvement, the first accession of cold weather develops the more pathognomonic signs of scurvy, upon which, as we shall presently have occasion to explain, succeed, in climates of sufficiently depressed winter temperature, “camp” fever—contagious, epidemic, and eminently fatal.

Influence of Specific Causes—Malaria.—But though the diseases of armies thus experience modifications, when arising from ordinary exciting causes, if these only act with unusual force and duration, yet the state of the

system which determines these modifications is productive of still more deplorable, and vastly more comprehensive and disastrous effects, when it co-operates with causes of disease of a more specific kind; and if the latter are present in any intensity, they never fail, on account of the pre-existing state of the patient, to produce their very worst consequences. The most common of these specific causes of disease among troops in the field are malaria and the tainted air of camps and hospitals. Of these we shall, therefore, make a few observations, premising that the remarks, or at least the conclusions derived from them, will hold good in their application to other causes of a like nature, though less constant in their operation or more limited in their sphere of action.

In the summer and autumn months of nearly all continental climates within the fiftieth degree of north latitude sources of malaria are more or less abundant in particular districts, and the position of armies in the field, therefore, constantly subjects them to the deleterious influence of these noxious miasmata, and in a greater degree than many are disposed to admit. The prevalence of fevers of the periodic type and dysentery, &c.—the natural products of terrestrial exhalations—is, however, greatly determined by particular seasons as well as by locality, and thus it frequently occurs, that troops will one year enjoy remarkably good health, while in another, without changing their position, they may be decimated by disease. Moreover, it is observed, that whether intermittent and remittent fevers and dysentery become prevalent, as the ordinary effect of unhappy locality at certain periods of the year, or of unhealthy season in more favoured localities, they are more apt to affect troops, if they be only sufficiently long exposed, as being strangers to the country, than the inhabitants, and even still more apt to assume serious proportions in the former than in the latter; for while the English soldier suffers from the graver and more rapidly fatal forms of remittent fever and severe dysentery of malarious origin, and even apoplexy or *coup de soleil*, if the temperature be sufficiently exalted, the residents, comprising the population native to the place, will experience the milder form of disease, intermittent fever—in the worst cases, it is true, of an irregular low quartan type, and characterized by general anæmia, a cachectic state, visceral congestions and dropsy; and the discrepancy thus noticed is not only to be explained by the degree of tolerance of the malarious poison imparted by the original constitution of the inhabitants, their habitual residence in the districts where these fevers are common, their habits of life, &c., but by the fact that they are isolated in towns and villages, to a great extent, from the operation of malaria. But apart from the general circumstances of season, and inherent predisposition of the English soldier, as affecting the action of the malarious poison, there are some specific causes which give it an increased influence on the soldier, both in garrison and in the field, particularly the latter. Thus we have had occasion to learn from experience that particular locality, even in places generally visited by fevers of the periodic type and dysentery, exercises a marked effect on the prevalence and fatality of these affections; and it is not unusually noticed that instances of these diseases are presented to a great degree in one regiment of a brigade and in one wing of a regiment, while another not far distant escapes with comparative immunity. Hence it is that change of encampment ground, or removal from barracks, and short marches have been attended with the best sanitary effects on troops, and that the records of sickness and mortality in the West Indies, as illus-

trating the effects of change of locality and removal to a higher position, demonstrate in so happy and conspicuous a manner, within what narrow circles the lethal influence of this source of disease may be confined.

But while the operation of malaria is often increased by the concurring influence of unhealthy season, locality, and the natural predisposition to suffer from its influence which belongs to English troops, there are some circumstances of service which tend materially to enhance its effects; for, independent of those frequent changes of encampment ground which are unavoidable, the impossibility of selecting within certain limits eligible positions for the troops, and the necessity of neglecting drainage altogether, or of resorting to it at a period of the year when the disturbance and exposure of the uncultivated soil is itself attended with a measure of danger, the exposure to the night air and dews, constant watching, inadequate clothing and bedding, lying near the damp ground in the absence of bedsteads, defective and innutritious food, imply a more severe application of this peculiar cause of disease, and at the same time induce a state of the system which gives fever and dysentery a degree of prevalence not only entirely disproportional to the intrinsic power of the specific cause, as noticed under ordinary circumstances of life, but causes them to assume forms and manifestations entirely peculiar and of a much more fatal kind. Indeed, the innate power of the malarious agency may be even supposed to possess a small measure of intensity while yet its effects are severe. And the medical officer has frequently occasion to remark that, however officers may share with their men the labours of the particular service which duty incurs, yet, in consequence of the superior and highly vitalizing nature of the diet, and the more comfortable and less crowded nature of the accommodation with which in *practice* they are in most instances provided, they scarcely suffer from the ordinary forms of intermittent and occasional attacks of remittent fever and diarrhoea, at a time when the army at large may be getting rapidly ineffective from the ravages which severe remittent fever and putro-adyynamic dysentery are committing in the more exposed and more susceptible men of the ranks. And as an illustration of the diversion which the direct exciting causes of disease sometimes experience, instances are observed in which (the malarious poison being defective in power) exhaustion and fatigue, exposure to night dews, or alternations of temperature, may be affirmed, separately or conjointly, to determine an attack of intermittent or remittent fever, which had been resisted so long as one or more of these had not come into operation, and which, independent of predisposition, existing in a reduced and depraved state of the system, would not have occurred at all—the effects, if any, being limited perhaps to some slight rheumatic or catarrhal affection, or an attack of diarrhoea. Wherefore, we conclude, that although many circumstances combine to render fevers of the periodic class prevalent among troops in the field (and we can have no measure in any case of the intensity of the specific cause, until some accurate idea shall have been arrived at with regard to the value of such concurring circumstances), yet the character and modifications presented by disease thus induced are to a great extent derived from the state of the system coexisting, for, according as it is satisfactory or defective, so will the application of the cause in one case produce intermittent and ordinary remittent fever and dysentery, and in another putro-adyynamic remittent fever and septic-hæmorrhagic dysentery; indeed, it may be asserted, that there is scarcely any disease in the whole nosology of which

the prevalence and degree of gravity are so much determined by constitutional vital resisting power in the soldier, as the periodic types of fever and the dysentery associated with them; and it is observed, that a body of recruits, or a detachment joining the head-quarters of a regiment after a march of several hundred miles, whatever degree of present health it may appear to enjoy, is particularly liable to suffer at a subsequent period, on account of the strain thus made upon the energies of the men, from disease in a manner quite at variance with the degree of prevalence which it obtains in the regiment generally.

2. *Tainted Air*.—It is impossible to study the statistical reports regarding the sickness, mortality, and invaliding in the army which have been published, without arriving at the conviction that the prevalence and fatality of disease are in a great degree determined by the nature and extent of the barrack accommodation with which the soldier is provided; and, perhaps, it would not be difficult to show that, not only in home stations, but in various commands both in the West and East Indies, the rate of mortality has been reduced in proportion as the amount of cubic space has been increased and the hygienic conditions of life have been attended to; in some instances, as in cold climates, in the decrease of deaths from diseases of the lungs, and more especially from phthisis pulmonalis—a complaint cherished and openly developed, especially under the influence of impure air and defective vital relations; in some instances, in the limits placed upon the extension of typhus; and again, more generally, and in all climates, by the removal of those low, adynamic, and half-chemical forms in which morbid actions are presented, when the system becomes vitiated, and the blood degenerates into a state which readily takes on the zymotic action. Nor is it possible to appreciate the causes which determine the greater immunity from disease which officers so often enjoy, as contrasted with the soldier in the ranks, upon any explanation which does not admit the influence of the measure of cubic space—of fresh air available to each respectively—for it is observed, when the conditions of diet, and even duty, are nearly alike, that instances are not unfrequently presented in which ailments, fostered and extended manifestly by close aggregation, are prevalent and destructive to the soldier, while the officer entirely escapes.

But although it must be thus admitted that, in the ordinary circumstances of the service, insufficient barrack accommodation is not without an influence very prejudicial to the health of the army, and affects, to a greater or less extent, the rate of its mortality, it is chiefly in connection with the wants and necessities incidental to the active operations of war that the injurious effects of overcrowding and inadequate ventilation are conspicuously observed. The position of the soldier in the field implies, unavoidably, much inattention to personal cleanliness, limited supplies of fresh clothing and bedding, close aggregation in tents and huts, the accumulation in the vicinity of his camp of decomposing animal and vegetable matters. The hospitals, which are provided for his reception when sick, are, from the nature of their structure and their position, often unsatisfactory in their hygienic conditions, while they are not infrequently unavoidably enlarged, and extended beyond the limits sanctioned by experience, and yet withal, sometimes greatly overcrowded, and always too constantly occupied by a class of ailments which pre-eminently tend to vitiate the air. The result, therefore, inevitably is—that notwithstanding all the attention which it is possible to bestow on the sanitary requirements of cleanliness, ventilation,

drainage, &c.—instances of camp typhus, of dysentery, are observed in cold seasons, while in warm climates, adynamic fever and dysentery are not uncommon. If, however, the wants of the soldier, with respect to clothing, bedding, and accommodation, be inadequately attended to, while the conditions of the service are attended with hardship, protracted exposure, and constant night watching, much more deplorable results are observed; the troops fall into a reduced, cachectic state, the hospitals become overburdened, fever and dysentery acquire in cold climates greater prevalence and fatality (the former presenting contagious properties), while in warm latitudes, they frequently become extremely destructive—dysentery presenting the asthenic degenerate type; and little improvement occurs until the condition of the soldier is greatly changed, the sanitary state of the camp improved, and the overburdened state of the hospitals relieved, by increasing the number of these establishments, and dispersing the sick to numerous and often distant quarters. Further, the results now referred to occur with much greater certainty when, to the operation of a vitiated, pestilential atmosphere, induced by overcrowding and the difficulties of the service, there is superadded the influence of a diet inadequate and defective—maintaining but a low standard of physical energy, of vital resisting power—for the outbreak of pestilence is then heralded by the appearance of scurvy and scorbutic taint; dysentery becomes hæmorrhagic and much more destructive, fever extremely fatal, and, in cold or temperate climates, eminently contagious; and when we endeavour to ascertain the meaning of this difference of result, we are forced to conclude, that it is the state of the system, the modifying and pathological cause of disease induced by the protracted action of unhappy conditions of service, which affords, not alone to the specific ailments above mentioned, an extensive development, but determines those features and characters whereby they are rendered infinitely more fatal and destructive. In what consists the special peculiarities of these affections, when acting, in this way, a prominent part among armies in the field, we need not here more particularly explain; they are stated, perhaps, at too great length in another place, and indeed, they comprised too much of the history of disease as it was exhibited in the British army of the Crimea; but we may be permitted to record our conviction, that when fever and dysentery assume an epidemic prevalence, in consequence of the conjoint influence of a *vitiated atmosphere* and unfavourable circumstances of service, they are true instances of systematic poisoning—of a species of fermentation, in which the specific cause acts as a leaven, the vitiated, depraved, and impoverished blood being a suitable material to facilitate and render certain its general operation and to secure its most destructive effects.

The observations now made regarding the circumstances which tend to give effect to *malaria* and the *tainted air* of camps and hospitals might, with propriety, be extended in their application to all the other forms of pestilential or epidemic disease, or the causes which produce them, for they are all influenced in the amount of devastation which they bring upon armies in the field by the sanitary and hygienic condition in which the troops are placed, and that state of the blood and measure of vitality in which the causes of disease of the more ordinary or less specific kind may have issued; but it is unnecessary to illustrate the fact by additional remarks, for it is amply proved, at least by the history of cholera and the plague, if not of yellow fever; it remains only to add that the

standard of health which belongs to troops on service is further determined by the age of the men composing the army, by their aptitude for service, and by the degree in which they are acclimatized in the locality which may be the scene of military operations; and it may be asserted that young men, soldiers inexperienced, devoid of self-reliance, and troops drafted fresh from England to warm climates, suffer from disease in a more prevalent manner and in more fatal forms, than the older, more experienced, and more seasoned soldier; bilious and ardent fevers, acute dysentery, and hepatitis representing the ailments which in general prove most destructive in these subjects.

If the facts thus stated be admitted, and the experience acquired in the Crimea (of the most painful features of which it has been our duty to endeavour to convey some impression) be acknowledged to possess any value or importance, we apprehend it cannot be doubted that war, as carried on according to the enlightened notions of humanity which distinguishes modern civilization, has, in truth, become in a great degree a problem of sanitary science; and that the greatest genius for command in battle may issue in less successful enterprise than the sagacious and provident arrangement which would provide for the continued preservation of the soldier in due health and efficiency. It must, therefore, be manifest that every officer to whose care is entrusted the welfare and safety of armies should be able to appreciate to some extent the injurious influences which are likely to affect the sanitary condition of the soldier, and the measures most essential to adopt in order to maintain him, while exposed to the hardships of service in the field, in a proper state of physical vigour and aptitude for the performance of the laborious duties which of necessity devolve upon him.

The following are the concluding observations of Dr. Matthew, staff-surgeon, on the surgical practice of the late war:—The total number of non-commissioned officers and privates killed in action during the whole war amounted to 2,598 men and 157 officers, or 2·7 of the total force sent out, viz., 93,959. The number died in hospital of wounds and injuries, was 1,761, or 1·8 per cent. of the total force sent. The total number of commissioned officers sent out was 3,905; of these 157 were killed in action, or 4 per cent. of the total force, and 86 died in hospital of wounds and injuries, or 2·2 per cent. The proportion per cent. of total wounded in men was as follows:—Gunshot wounds of the head, 11·9 per cent.; of the face, 7·4; of the neck, 1·7; chest, 5·8; abdomen, 3·2; perinæum and genitals, 0·7; back and spine, 4·5; upper extremity, 30·2; lower extremity, 31·7; sword and lance wounds, 0·1; bayonet wounds, 0·5; miscellaneous wounds and injuries, 1·7.

During the first four months of the service in Turkey (in other words, until the commencement of the fighting), the admissions of the men into the hospital by ordinary wounds and injuries averaged, monthly, 0·6 per cent. of the force present; and it seems not undeserving of notice, that on the cessation of the occurrence of wounds in action or similar casualties, which may be said to have been the case after the explosion of the right siege train on the 15th November, the average monthly admissions for the remaining seven months of service in the East was very nearly the same, being 0·7 per cent. of the monthly strength present. The percentage of admissions during the months of the greater battles and assaults was also wonderfully constant, being, of the men, for September (Alma), 5·7; for

November (Inkermann), 6·5; for June (first assault on Redan), 5·9; and for September (second assault on the Redan), 5·0. Something under 6 per cent. of the strength, then, would seem to indicate the limit beyond which reserved hospital accommodation need not be kept for the reception of the wounded of a large army engaged in active field operations, while it is equally plain that much under 5 per cent. would not be safe. It is scarcely necessary, however, to observe that the proportion of wounded in any individual member of the component parts of a large force may be very widely different from that here stated; thus, at the battle of Inkermann, the 41st and 95th Regiments, with a strength in the Crimea of 678 and 500 respectively, received into hospital for treatment 104 and 120 cases of wounds, or 15·3 per cent. of the strength in the former, and 24·0 in the latter; and even these numbers appear to have been exceeded in some corps on other occasions. It is also of some importance, as bearing upon the number of recruits necessary to be sent out to keep an army in the field at a given strength, to ascertain, with accuracy, the average number of any given series of men disabled by wounds received in action who return to duty as effective soldiers, and the average time they remain under treatment before this result is obtained.

With regard to the first period into which the campaign has been divided in this report, 43·5 per cent. of the men returned to duty. The information on the second of these points, however, is defective, for several reasons; and the time itself was subject to disturbing agencies of various kinds, which did not affect the series of wounds of the second period. During the first, also, a much larger percentage of cases treated was invalided to England, viz., 37·1, against 23·3 in the second. The cause of this was not so much the greater severity of the wounds received, or the less successful treatment, as the pressure on the hospitals during the winter of 1854, which led to the transfer home of all cases fit to be removed, which were likely to require a lengthened period of convalescence before they could be pronounced fully fit to resume the duties of a soldier on active service. During the latter period, as before stated, 7,161 wounded men were received for treatment, of whom 4,509 returned to duty, or 63 per cent.

The total number of men discharged the service for disabilities consequent upon wounds received in action and other mechanical injuries inflicted during the late war was 3,011. By far the larger proportion of these received their discharge at the general invalid dépôt at Chatham, but 245 of the Foot Guards and 230 of the Ordnance corps were discharged from the head-quarters of their respective regiments, and a further number of men of the cavalry and line (141) were dismissed in Ireland. The several causes of disability are thus returned:—Laxations, 6; gunshot wounds, 2,118; incised and punctured wounds, 31; contusions, 54; fractures, 86; burns, 5; amputations, 671; resections, 11; injuries not specified, 29.

No. CXIV.—CONSULAR SERVICE.

Report of the Select Committee appointed to inquire into the Consular Service and Consular Appointments. (482.)

THE Committee was appointed on the 22nd of March, 1858, consisting of Viscount Palmerston, Lord Claud Hamilton, Lord Robert Cecil, Sir John Walsh, Sir Minto Farquhar, and Messrs. Seymour Fitzgerald, Monckton Milnes, Henley, Horsfall, Wilson, Wise, Bramley Moore, Kinnaid, Lindsay, and Gregory.

The Committee examined the following witnesses :—Mr. Edmund Hammond, Under Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs; Messrs. Thomas Lawrence Ward, and Francis Beilby Alston, senior clerks in the Consular Department in the Foreign Office; Mr. Rutherford Alcock, Her Majesty's Consul at Canton; Walter Medhurst, Her Majesty's Consul at Foo-chow-foo; George Stoddart, Her Majesty's Consul at Madeira; William Richard Holmes, Consul at Diarbekir; Frederick William Calvert, Consul at the Dardanelles; George Bouchier Ward, Vice-Consul Cancellier at Constantinople; Lieutenant-Colonel Sir Henry Creswicke Rawlinson, K.C.B., M.P., late Consul-General and Political Agent of the East India Company; John Augustus Longworth, Her Majesty's Consul at Monastir; Horatio Bronté Suter, Her Majesty's Consul at Varna; Henry Alabaster, Second Assistant to the Consulate at Bankak in Siam; James Yeames, late Consul-General at Odessa; John Hargreaves, Private Secretary to the Consul-General at Hamburg; William Penrose Mark, Her Majesty's Consul for the Province of Granada; John Ward, Consul-General in Saxony; Alexander Turnbull, Robert Hesketh, and Thomas Colley Grattan, late of the Consular Service; Henry Augustus Cowper, Her Majesty's Consul at Pernambuco Alagoas, Paraíba, Rio Grande, and Ceara; John Barton, Consul at Callao in Peru; Thomas Neville Ussher, Consul-General in Hayti; George William Featherstonaugh, Consul for the Department of the Seine Inférieure, and Calvados, France; John Benjamin Heath, Sardinian Consul-General in England; William Mitchell, Editor of the *Shipping and Mercantile Gazette*; Edmund Arnout Grattan, Her Majesty's Consul at Antwerp; William Robert Seymour Verey Fitzgerald, M.P.; Richard Levinge Swift, Her Majesty's Consul at Oporto; Thomas Berry Horsfall, M.P.; Frederic Bernal, Her Majesty's Consul at Carthage; Patrick Francis Campbell Johnstone; John Ashford Wise, M.P.; John Willis, shipowner; John Edwards, shipowner; Chevalier Patrick; Mac Chombaic de Colquhoun, LL.D.; Captain the Honourable James Robert Drummond, C.B., R.N.; Henry John Atkinson and Charles Alcock, shipowners; and William Flint Sadler, of Lloyd's.

The Committee reported as follows :—

It has been the object of your Committee to obtain the best information upon the present condition of the consular service of this country, to investigate any grievances or deficiencies which the system might seem to create or to foster, and to consider any remedies or improvements which competent

persons might suggest. For these purposes they have examined those gentlemen of the Foreign Office who are most likely to be familiar with the working of the consular department, and those consular officers whose attendance could be procured without much inconvenience or expense. They have afforded every facility to those who might be disposed to criticise or object to the present organization of the service. Not only have amendments and alterations in matters of detail been proposed, but an entire reform of the whole consular system has been suggested by witnesses whose opinions may claim a respectful consideration; and your Committee can only desire to give their due weight to the arguments by which those proposals have been sustained, and to examine them in relation to the social and political condition of the British Empire.

In the year 1835, a Select Committee was appointed to inquire into the consular establishment, and its recommendations have been generally adopted with satisfactory results. The civil and criminal jurisdiction of British consuls in the Levant has been better regulated and defined, and the formation of the Consular Court at Constantinople promises, with some slight modification, to accomplish all that is required in that peculiar jurisdiction. The whole consular establishment, with the exception of the powers exercised by the Board of Trade, is now under the direction of Her Majesty's Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. The table of notarial fees has been revised, and the present scale appears to be commonly regarded by those whom it most concerns as moderate and just; and the information with regard to agriculture, foreign and domestic trade, manufactures, population, public works, and other matters of commercial interest, which is periodically transmitted to the Foreign Office, by the several consuls, in pursuance of their instructions, and laid before Parliament, has already supplied a large amount of valuable statistics, and served to raise the consular service in public esteem. Notwithstanding these ameliorations, it was apparent that several causes of dissatisfaction yet remained, which it was advisable, as far as possible, to probe and remedy. The Foreign Office was besieged by applications from consuls, representing that their present salaries bore a very different relation to the prices of articles of first necessity, and to the ordinary mode of life in their several localities, from what they did at the time of their appointment; and that, in many cases, the amount itself had been calculated on a false assumption; while the discomfort of their position was considerably aggravated by its contrast with that of their foreign colleagues, who not only received larger emoluments, but, from the different constitution of their consular services, enjoyed a higher social station, and frequently had been rewarded with honorary distinctions.

On the other hand, some portions of the mercantile community, especially the shipowners, made no secret of their opinion, that those consuls who were allowed to trade and act as commission agents occasionally abused their official station to the detriment of commerce and to the annoyance of traders, and that in no case could persons so engaged hope to retain the same authority and means of usefulness that an independent salaried officer might be expected to possess. Other minor grievances, which will be alluded to in the course of this report, had been urged upon the attention of the House of Commons, the Government, and the public, when a member of your Committee proposed to Parliament that this subject should again be submitted to investigation. The administration of the day readily acquiesced

in this course of proceeding, which was only delayed for the purpose of procuring from the consuls in all parts of the world the most ample information respecting their official position, their alleged disadvantages, and their general views on the consular system, as it exists in our own and other nations. The opinions of high diplomatic personages on these points were also solicited, and the selection of these documents, which is appended to this report, will attest the zeal and ability which both services brought to the consideration of the question.

On the subject of emoluments and salaries of the consuls, the Committee of 1835 were of opinion that no further reduction in the total expense could at that time be made without detriment to the public interest; but they gave their full sanction to the "relaxation made in 1832 of the system pursued since 1825, of preventing consuls from engaging in trade." That system may fairly be considered to have been established by Mr. Canning at the period when the Act of Parliament, commonly known as the Consular Act, was passed, and a separate department in the Foreign Office devoted to the consular service under the able superintendence of the late Mr. John Bidwell. The relaxation alluded to seems to have proceeded rather from motives of national economy, than from any settled opposition to the principles by which Mr. Canning's policy was regulated; and it is now for your Committee to determine whether, after the additional experience which has been acquired, they are prepared to recommend a stricter application of those principles.

The superior efficiency of the non-trading over the trading consul, has been recognized by almost every witness that has appeared before your Committee, and it is to the suspicion and distrust which seems to be unavoidably connected with this license to trade, that may to some extent be attributed the discontent prevailing against the consular service on the part of the commercial classes of this country. These feelings may in some degree have been encouraged by a comparison with the organization of the consular service of other nations, where it consists either—as in the case of France and the United States, wholly of salaried officers, or, as in that of Russia and Austria, is strictly divided into the two classes of the paid national consul, and the mercantile consular agent, who is frequently a foreigner.

In reference to this distinction, your Committee would remark that the character of this service must be mainly affected by the political and social habits of the power and people it represents. From the earliest period, when consuls were the elected arbiters of commercial differences, and the regulators of the mercantile marine in the ports of Spain and Italy, their attributes have been essentially connected with trade; and although, from particular circumstances and relations, some governments may have found it convenient to invest them with diplomatic functions, it must be kept in mind that the eminently commercial interests of this country require, as a general rule, that a consul should be a commercial officer, and his time be occupied in commercial duties. The exceptions to this principle must, as far as Great Britain is concerned, depend upon the peculiarities of government and manners in that part of the world where the consul is stationed. A latitude of discretion, and an exercise of authority, may be entrusted to consuls established in a country where the customs and religion are more or less antagonistic to those of European civilization, and where the weakness of the rulers is unable to secure a full protection to life and property, which

would be altogether superfluous and unadvisable in the case of those who are resident amidst a well-regulated community. The consular establishments, therefore, in China, Siam, and the Levant, have engaged the especial attention of your Committee; and they are desirous to record their opinion upon these branches of the subject before they proceed to recommend any general scheme for the consular service.

CHINA AND SIAM.—The Chinese consulates have been established on a liberal scale of salaries independent of the fees, which are all credited to the public account. The consuls do not correspond directly with the Foreign Office, but with the Superintendent of Trade at Hong Kong, who exercises the real function of a Consul-General, either acting on his own judgment, or referring cases home for decision. Independently of the linguists, whose services are required on account of the variety of dialects, all persons engaged in the consular offices are British subjects. The student-interpreters who have been sent out from this country appear to have performed their duties with great efficiency, and the only improvement that has been suggested in this department is, that for the first two years they should give their entire attention to the language without being occupied with the ordinary official work. For this purpose some temporary increase in the staff seems necessary, and the appointment of a competent professor of Chinese at Hong Kong advisable—fit teachers being very difficult to procure. The want of material force in the shape of some European police attached to the consulates has caused serious inconvenience, and should be supplied. With these exceptions, your Committee desire to express their unqualified approbation of this well-organised establishment, although such an expenditure as above 17,500*l.* per annum for six consulates may be on too high a scale for general application. In this instance it is justified by the gravity of the matters the consuls are called upon to decide, by the peculiarity of their political position, and by the great mortality to which from the nature of the climate they are subject. A similar arrangement has been made in Siam with equal promise of success, the direct communication between that consulate and the Foreign Office being the only difference.

NORTHERN AFRICA, EASTERN EUROPE, AND THE LEVANT.—Although less separate in manners and interests from the rest of mankind, there is a large portion of the world which may justly demand a peculiar consideration in the re-construction of any such system as that of the consular service. On the southern shores of the Mediterranean, and throughout the dominion of the Ottoman Porte, the incongruity of religion and manners, and in many districts the feebleness of the central power, imposes a special responsibility on every man entrusted with the protection of the lives and properties of British subjects. The present anxious condition of the Mohammedan peoples, of which, within the few last weeks, we have had a deplorable example in the murder of the British and French consuls at Jeddah, requires that every agent of British authority, from Tangiers to Bagdad, should be not only fitted to perform with probity and accuracy the ordinary routine of consular duty, but should be able on any sudden emergency to act with the vigour and decision which can only be expected from men who have some familiarity with political affairs, and who, above all, thoroughly understand the nature, both of the officials with whom they have to deal, and of the population among whom they are placed.

These objects were to a considerable degree attained in past times by the

character of the consular administration established by, and afterwards inherited from, the Levant Company, by which not only corporate but family relations produced a class of persons perfectly acquainted with the languages and feelings of the inhabitants of the Turkish dominions, and whose only fault might be that they had become somewhat dissociated from the thoughts and habits of their countrymen. The capitulations which, from the time of Charles II., had been agreed upon with the government of the Sultan, invested every consul and vice-consul with magisterial power, and gave him a corresponding facility of command; and although this authority is now more limited in its exercise, and under more distinct regulations than formerly, it is essential that the same spirit of independence and sense of dignity should be maintained. With this view your Committee would impress upon the Government, first, the advantage of restricting the consular functions in these countries as far as possible to British subjects; secondly, the prohibition of all persons in this capacity who hold any large independent jurisdiction from engaging in trade.

On the first point, it is obvious, that where Mohammedan subjects are employed in British consular offices, their position towards their own countrymen and government must always be dubious and embarrassing, and that their services on any difficult occasion cannot be calculated upon with certainty. The agency of Greeks and Levantines is clearly objectionable upon other grounds. At the same time Englishmen, competent to fill the numerous places occupied by foreigners as dragomans, clerks, vice-consuls, and consular agents, are not easily procurable, and all that can be done in this direction must, in a great degree, be prospective. The experiment of training up British subjects as Oriental secretaries in the embassy at Constantinople has been sufficiently successful, to authorize its extension to the consular department, and your Committee recommend that no time should be lost in sending out a limited body of young men, whose general sound education, and aptitude for the acquisition of languages, has been tested by previous examination, and who, after some probationary experience and instruction at Constantinople, might be transferred to the chief consulates to act as clerks, until they were capable of performing the duty of interpreters. By the time these consular students became skilled in the requisites of their profession, a sufficient number of vice-consulates, now occupied by foreigners, would probably be vacant, to offer to them a fair inducement to industry and good conduct. Their salary to begin with should not be less than 100*l.* per annum, and such increase of the payment of the vice-consulates would be necessary, as would enable British officials to live with credit and respectability. There would, perhaps, be no difficulty, at the commencement of this system, in finding some younger men already well-informed in Eastern languages and consular duties, who would enter the consular service; but in order to retain their services a fair hope of promotion and reward should be held out to them, as it appears from the evidence before your Committee, that many who have been employed in subordinate capacities, have left it as soon as they became useful for other and more profitable occupations. There seems no valid reason why the most distinguished of these officials should not rise to the very highest posts in a department of the public service in which consular and diplomatic functions are, from the nature of things, continually intermingled, and where the knowledge acquired in the least responsible position is available in the transaction of the most important business. Exceptional cases,

where the general interests of Europe are concerned, may authorise the nominations of consuls-general within these districts, selected from the diplomatic body; but your Committee hope that such appointments may be rare, and that all the advantages of a real career may be secured to those who belong to, or may enter, the consular branch of the service, and show themselves competent to fill the offices that may be assigned to them.

On the second point, some of the arguments which are brought against a consul's license to trade apply with less force to the Eastern than to other portions of the world. But while there is not the same inconvenience as elsewhere in relation to other merchants, the necessity of preserving to the consul the most complete independence, and securing his dignity and freedom from suspicion, is nowhere so stringent; little reliance can be placed upon those with whom he must be connected in his commercial operations, and though innocent himself, he may easily bring discredit on his own name and that of his country. Again, it has been well urged by one witness, who gave up a lucrative trade to devote himself wholly to his consular avocations, that nothing can be more incompatible than the duties of a trader and a judge; and by another, whose case might well be regarded as an exception, in consequence of its beneficial effects on the commerce of Central Asia, that a merchant will continually appear to be using his consular powers for his private interests, and depriving his office of its due consideration. In a country like Turkey, where the dominant race is addicted to arms and agriculture, and the employments of commerce have fallen into the hands of the subject portions of the community, the true value of such occupations cannot be understood, and they will convey, however unjustly, a character of inferiority to all engaged in them. It is, therefore, the decided opinion of your Committee that within this range of the service no British consul or vice-consul should be permitted to trade, except in such cases as the Foreign Office may specially determine to be advantageous to the public interest, and with a view to the opening and developing of a new trade. Native consular agents, in such ports as would not give sufficient employment to a British subject, cannot be prevented from following their ordinary pursuits; but it would be advisable that some such different designation as "British Consular Agent," should be adopted. Causes not identical, but similar, would induce your Committee to comprehend within the same regulations the countries connected with Turkey, such as Servia, and the Danubian Principalities, as well as the kingdom of Greece, where the political future cannot be regarded as secure from troubles contingent on the historical opposition of races and religion. The administration of justice in the Levant under the Order of Council of 1844, and the appointment of Mr. Hornby as judge of the Consular Court at Constantinople, leave little to be desired. If it is compatible with prudential considerations to enable the judge to make a circuit to two or three of the principal ports, and there hold an assize for the trial of graver offences, it would no doubt tend to more unity of legal proceedings, and relieve the consuls from much painful responsibility. If, however, this is impracticable, a witness has suggested that the appointment of a law-clerk to each of the chief consulates, who should assist the consul in his decision, might effect the same object.

THE CONSULS IN EUROPE.—It has been the good fortune of your Committee to obtain satisfactory evidence from gentlemen employed as British consuls in Russia, Germany, France, and the Spanish Peninsula, on most

of the points which could require consideration; of these, perhaps the most prominent is the license to trade, on which it becomes the duty of your Committee to judge whether it is advisable to revert to the views and practice of Mr. Canning, as shown in his reformation of the service, or to approve and recommend the continuance of the relaxation which afterwards took place. It is undeniable that a trading consul is exposed to very painful suspicions. In his transactions as a merchant he may be supposed to obtain priority of information in matters affecting the value of articles and changes in the market; he may be believed to be lax in performing his consular duty, in order to get favour with the local authorities, and obtain facilities for his own business as a trader or commission-agent; he may be presumed to have a private interest in the mercantile disasters and difficulties of his countrymen, instead of being regarded as their protector from fraud and injustice, and their natural counsellor in circumstances of danger and perplexity. When connected with the postal department, he may be imagined to take some advantage over rival merchants in the earlier delivery or later despatch of his correspondence. Where a system of custom-house credits is adopted, it might be conceived that the consul was a gainer by his official position; and if resident in a neutral State during war, he might possibly be suspected of dealing in articles of contraband. And with regard to the statistical reports which the consul is bound periodically to furnish, although the details of his own branch of business might be more full and accurate, yet it may be fairly inferred that the information from other sources would be less freely afforded than if he were understood to have no personal connection with commercial affairs. To these objections may be added the interference of private matters with the consul's time, which should be left free for public duties, an embarrassment which has induced several to abandon a profitable occupation as inconsistent with their official functions.

The license to trade, when not taken advantage of either from want of capital on the part of the consul, or from his disinclination to engage in a pursuit of which he has no previous knowledge or experience, is a great hardship on any public servant. His salary is calculated on the supposition of a privilege of which he cannot avail himself, and which, if he did make use of it, would, he believes, tend to diminish his means of usefulness and dignity of position. This last consideration cannot be without some weight in the decision of this question; for although we might trust to any Englishman to make himself respected, by his personal character, yet it is hardly decorous that the representative of Great Britain in any capacity should hold an inferior social station to that of his official colleagues. Abstractedly, therefore, from the question of public expenditure, your Committee have no hesitation in recommending the abolition of trading consulships throughout Europe; but although they have no distrust in the liberality of Parliament, in a matter so vitally affecting the interests of the commercial community, they are conscious that, if the rule were universally applied, the increase of expenditure would be so large as not to justify such a course as long as any other reasonable alternative can be suggested.

The custom of selecting merchants of high standing and respectability, already established in foreign ports, to act as consular agents either for their own or other governments, has been extensively adopted by many nations, and in some degree by ourselves. In these cases the consular agent appears to be content to give his services willingly in return for the honour he derives from the trust confided to him, accompanied by the remuneration of

some small fees for the trouble incurred. The position of such a person is likely to be more independent than that of a consul with a small salary who ekes out his income by a trade which is frequently of a precarious and accidental nature. If, therefore, it shall appear that there are cases where the trade is so unimportant as not to justify the expense of a consular establishment, it is in this direction that your Committee think that an economy might be effected, which might, at least in some degree, balance the enhanced expenditure consequent on a change of system. The leading merchant, to whom his consular duties are merely an addition to his business, and a recognition of his worth and standing, is not so exposed to the various objections to which we have alluded. It may not be the best thing to have such a consul, but it is certainly the second-best. No inducement should be neglected which could incline men of the highest respectability to accept such offices, and for this purpose, no less than for that of conferring deserved rewards on other consuls who have performed distinguished services or have spent their lives in active duties, it is advisable that the consular body should no longer be looked upon as excluded from those honorary distinctions which are the proofs of the approbation of their Sovereign. In all ports, then, in which the amount of British shipping is such as entirely to occupy the time and attention of a consul, your Committee would desire that his salary should be adequate without requiring him to engage in any other employment. An exception might be made in the agency of Lloyd's, which would not bring him into any inconvenient relation with other parties. In places where all that is required is the presence of a trustworthy agent, who should discharge occasional and accidental duties, a merchant of good repute, if possible an Englishman, might be nominated consular agent, who should only receive such fees as are now levied, or else some small stipend which should be regarded as an honorarium. By this means the number of vice-consuls might be diminished, and their places at the larger ports supplied by a limited number of consular-students, who would learn the ordinary work of the office, and be trained up to the requirements of the service. As it is expedient to give to the Secretary of State a greater latitude in the selection of consuls in Europe than is advisable in the East, your Committee would not wish to see the Foreign Office encumbered with a numerous body of claimants to consular offices; while, on the other hand, the want of familiarity with commercial affairs has occasionally formed a ground of complaint on the part of shipowners, which would not occur if, in the majority of cases, persons were appointed specially educated for the profession. Without entering into any positive engagement as to the promotion of these young men, it would be only fair to their just claims that they should have a preference over diplomatic *employés* and others, to appointments in the consular service. A more definite rank, also, in relation to the diplomatic body, might with convenience be assigned to the several classes of consular functionaries, which would give them a right to a certain precedence in public ceremonials, and lessen the distinction which now exists on such occasions between the French consular officials and our own.

NORTH AND SOUTH AMERICA.—The consular system which your Committee would recommend as best adapted to the service in Europe, would be still more applicable to that in the United States; the late changes in the American organization rendering the status of a trading consul more anomalous than elsewhere, and the advantages of an independent position

more decided. In Central and on the West Coast of South America the consular service presents certain peculiarities which demand a special consideration. The chief appointments in that department appear to be more of a diplomatic than of consular character, and have of late been practically regarded as belonging to the former service. In a state of society subject to so much confusion and disturbance, it is, no doubt, necessary that all representatives of foreign powers should be persons of much experience and discretion; but it appears to your Committee deserving of consideration whether these places might not be well and usefully filled by men who had given proof of eminent qualities in the consulates of Europe, America, or even of the East, and not exclusively given to such diplomatic officials as may be induced by these comparatively lucrative appointments to give up the higher prospects of their own profession. If the prohibition to trade be made more general, and an arrangement respecting fees, which will form part of the recommendations of your Committee, is adopted, the great fluctuations to which of late years the emoluments of consuls in this part of the world have been subject will no longer exist, and nothing would prevent a gradation of salaried officers who, familiar with the languages and customs of these countries, would naturally be the persons to whom these offices would be appropriated with the greatest public advantage.

SALARIES AND EMOLUMENTS.—Your Committee cannot but perceive that the amount of the present salaries and emoluments received by British consuls abroad is the main practical question submitted to their judgment. It is therefore satisfactory to them to be able to report, that their conviction on this point entirely agrees with the evidence which they have received, and which has been reiterated in the same words, and supported by the same facts, in the testimony of almost every witness, and confirmed by the opinion and acts of the Foreign Office under successive governments. The salaries fixed many years ago, on no excessive scale, have been really diminished in value by independent circumstances to an extent which at present renders them a completely false representation of the profits of consular offices in different quarters of the globe. Mr. Hammond and Mr. Alston concur in stating that the increase of prices in all foreign countries has of late years been very great, while no equivalent relief has been given to our consuls, beyond some slight assistance to meet those office expenses which previously came out of their receipts. Mr. Calvert states that the expense of living at the Dardanelles is in many articles trebled, in some quadrupled, from what it was when he entered the service. Mr. Yeames bears testimony to the total disproportion in the cost of food, fuel, and house-rent in Odessa, compared with that which existed at the time he was first sent there, and when he was in receipt of a higher stipend than when he left it thirty-five years afterwards. Mr. Holmes estimates the rise of prices, in almost every part of the East, at threefold in the course of the last six years. The expense of living at Rio was almost doubled during the twenty years of Mr. Hesketh's residence there. Mr. Ussher gives nearly the same evidence with regard to St. Domingo. In Germany, Mr. Ward rates the increase of the prices of all the necessaries of life as at least from 40 to 50 per cent., and regards his salary as not worth more than half what it was at the time it was fixed. At Marseilles, Mr. Turnbull records the gradual augmentation of all the means of subsistence, and especially of house-rent, during his employment there, till it has become impossible for a consul to live decently on the sum allotted to him; while at Havre, Mr. Featherston-

haugh asserts that he has maintained the respectability of his position for several years out of his private income. There is no reason to suppose that these are especial instances of the present poverty of remuneration in the consular service. There is no doubt that several of these gentlemen have accepted such offices with a clear understanding of their existing disadvantages; but for some time past hopes have been held out by the Foreign Office that some more satisfactory arrangement would result from the nomination of this Committee. It must also be taken into account, that where the profits of the consulate have mainly depended upon fees, the consequence of the late alteration in the scale has been in most cases a considerable reduction in the proceeds. Justice to an important branch of the public service, therefore, imperatively demands such a revision of the salaries and emoluments of the consular service as will place them in circumstances consistent with the importance of their duties, and at least, as a body, in no worse position than they occupied thirty years ago; and the only doubt that remains on the mind of your Committee is, by what method this object can be most easily obtained. Mr. Hammond has represented, that such a process must impose much labour upon the officials of the Foreign Office, and your Committee is deeply impressed with the difficulty of arriving at a satisfactory solution, where the elements of the calculation are so various and so uncertain. The returns of cost and expenditure which have been made for this purpose to the Foreign Office, present a mass of documents from which your Committee conceive that it is far easier to draw general inferences, than to attempt to settle each case on its individual merits. Nevertheless, when they consider the very varying circumstances and costs of living in different places, your Committee see no principle upon which any uniform scale of salaries can be determined. Your Committee would, however, recommend that the principle of classification and uniformity of salary should be adopted as far as possible, and that the higher classes should be regarded as the fair rewards to which the lower classes should look forward; and your Committee trust to the liberality of Parliament to make provision for the improved salaries which may appear necessary. Your Committee would suggest the following classification:—Consuls-general, first-class consuls, second-class consuls, vice-consuls, and consular students. British consular agents engaged in trade, to be paid by fees or an equivalent honorarium. Your Committee have not included in the above classification the office of consul-general and *chargé-d'affaires*, which is regarded more in the light of a diplomatic than a consular appointment, but they would here apply to the whole service the observations they have already made in reference to these appointments in South America. To avoid the inconvenience of frequent changes which must be injurious to the efficiency of the service, your Committee would advise that, after the performance of the duties of a second-class consulate for a considerable period in a manner satisfactory to the Government, a second-class consul may be personally raised to the first class, and enjoy the rank and benefits attached to that position. At the same time your Committee recognize the advantages which a consul must derive from an occasional visit to this country, and by personal communication with his superiors at home. The present subtraction of half of his salary during his absence from his post, prevents a considerable number of consuls from availing themselves of the leave they might obtain; and it would doubtless be considered as a welcome boon, and would at the same

time conduce to a more cheerful and efficient discharge of their public duties, if at certain definite periods, say of five years, a consul was permitted to return with leave for a certain time, say six months, without any diminution of his stipend. A small gratuity would suffice for the vice-consul or consular student who might act as his substitute, and by this means give proof of his capacity for a higher office.

EXCHANGES.—A grievance which has fallen on certain members of the consular service has been brought under the attention of your Committee, namely, the loss which they suffer by means of the exchange. The diplomatic body have been relieved from any risk of this nature by an arrangement with the Treasury, by which they receive the difference if the exchange is against them, and pay the difference if it is in their favour. No such concession has been made to consuls. And your Committee would desire that the question of placing both services on a level in this respect should be taken into consideration. Mr. Bernal has alluded to the loss of this kind he sustained when employed at Madrid, which amounted to 5 or 5½ per cent. on his salary; and similar losses are represented to have fallen upon our consuls in some parts of the East, and especially at Shanghai. The circumstances connected with the exchanges in China are very peculiar, and are described in an important and interesting correspondence.

FEES.—It appears from the evidence of independent parties which has been tendered to your Committee, that a desire partially to revert to the system of tonnage-dues in lieu of the fees now leviable by consuls, exists in some sections of the mercantile community. In 1835 a proposal was submitted to the Committee then sitting to charge a part of the remuneration of consuls on tonnage and imports, but met with no approval in that report, and the course of opinions on taxation since that period has not been such as to authorize your present Committee to take a different view. Moderate fees, paid for actual service rendered, seem to be a reasonable proceeding; while a tonnage-fee, however small, to be paid in exchange for contingent services, would soon appear exorbitant in the eyes of captains and ship-owners who happen to derive no advantage from consular interference. The large capitalist and the prudent trader would, in fact, pay for the benefits conferred on the more reckless and less well-regulated agencies of commerce. But the representations which have been made both by consuls themselves and others as to the impropriety of the present incidence of the fees are sufficient to authorize your Committee to express a positive approbation of the system of collecting fees on Government account.

Some consular officers have owned to a sense of degradation at making up their income by the receipt of these small and casual contributions, and assert that considerable laxity in their collection exists from honourable motives of compassion to the needy, and from unwillingness to appear rapacious. If, however, the fees were credited to the public account, they would be collected as a matter of course without favour or personal consideration, and it is believed by one competent witness that the gain to the public would be large. Under this arrangement it is recommended that, all office expenses should be regulated and paid by the Government. The substitution of a fixed salary for an uncertain source of income is in itself a clear advantage, which will be all the more perceptible when the amount of fluctuation, as exhibited in some of the consular reports, is observed. Your Committee, then, do not hesitate to recommend such a change in the destination of the consular fees, and beg to call the attention of the Government

to a mode of collection by means of stamps, which has been suggested by a member of your Committee, and which appears to possess the merits of convenience and security. Much evidence has been taken upon this subject, and your Committee recommend that the Foreign Office should devise a scheme suited for the purpose, in conjunction with the Treasury and Board of Inland Revenue.

Your Committee, in conclusion, would hope that no time may be lost in accomplishing the following objects :—

1. The establishment of such a system of consular education and promotion as may tend to prevent the employment of any but British subjects as consuls, vice-consuls, or interpreters, in the portion of the world comprising Northern Africa, Eastern Europe, and the Levant.
2. The prohibition of all consuls to engage in trade, or to accept commercial agencies (except in such cases as the Foreign Office may especially determine to be advantageous to the public interest, with a view to the opening or developing of any new trade), and the appointment of respectable persons, already engaged in commerce, as British consular agents, in places where the presence of a salaried British official is not required.
3. The diminution of the present number of vice-consuls in Europe, and the gradual abolition of their licence to trade.
4. Such an organization of the consular service as may divide its members into separate classes, receiving salaries adequate to their position, and without any further reduction than that of the income-tax; any augmentation for special service or peculiar circumstances to be made in the way of a special allowance.
5. The appropriation of all fees, except in the cases of unpaid consuls, to the public account, the expenses of the office being regulated and defrayed by the Government.

Your Committee are of opinion that the consular instructions might be revised with advantage, and that the publication, periodically, of the commercial returns from our consuls, in an improved form, might be of considerable benefit to the public. Your Committee recommend that the classification of consular officers referred to in their report, together with the scale of salaries decided upon by the Government, should be laid before Parliament. Your Committee are unwilling to separate without expressing their gratification at the testimony borne to the worth and character of the gentlemen now on the consular establishment of this country. Little disposition has been manifested on the part of corporate bodies or of individuals to substantiate before your Committee any accusations of misconduct or mal-administration, although especially invited to do so; but the few charges that have been brought before them have been of much use in leading them to general inferences and to such conclusions as will, they conceive, for the future prevent even the suspicion of such occurrences. Other effects of the proposed reforms may not be so immediate or so prominent, but your Committee trust that they will result in a sound and permanent organization, in the true economy which justly remunerates efficient service, and in the contentment of the officers engaged and of the country that employs them.

The following items are gathered from the evidence and other documents :—

British Consuls in China.—The system of British consulates in China exists under very special regulations. They differ from that of other British consulates from the race and the language being perfectly apart, from the necessity of corresponding with the minister in the country instead of with the Foreign Office, and from the detached service of some twenty-five officers distributed in a group of five consulates, all linked together, and in correspondence with the Superintendent of Trade at Hong Kong. They

all have a similar class of duties, but of a more complicated and extended kind than usually fall to the lot of consuls anywhere, not even excepting the Levant. They have political functions, judicial functions, and commercial functions; and all of a very extended kind, involving greater responsibility than usually devolves upon consuls. It is the consul's duty to protect the interests of his countrymen; to see that the treaties are duly acted upon, and, in the event of a violation of them, to take such steps as may be in his power, either to redress it or get redress through the minister. In many cases, at a distant port like Shanghai, where a communication between the consul and the Superintendent of Trade at Hong Kong would take six weeks, it will often happen that the consul must act upon his own authority, and act decisively, in matters of considerable importance, sometimes affecting the life or the security of the residents. The consul must act in the first place as police magistrate, in hearing disputes and quarrels between masters and seamen, sometimes matters of more serious consequence, and cases of assault or other misdemeanours among the residents and their servants; he must act in cases, such as come before the common-law courts in England, on all matters of disputed contracts and questions of rights with reference to houses and property; he is to administer the affairs of deceased persons, and grant probates under the system of the ecclesiastical courts; sometimes he must sit as coroner on coroners' inquests. In fact, in the whole range of the law there is scarcely anything which he is not required to take action upon. The consul in China has the power of punishment by deportation, or twelve months' imprisonment, or a fine of 200 dollars.

All British consuls in China are strictly prohibited from trading. Immediately they engage in trade their influence greatly diminishes. Among the Chinese themselves, none of the higher functionaries engage in trade. The mercantile class stands very low in the social hierarchy in China; the military class stands the lowest, and the mercantile class just above.

British Consuls in Turkey and the Levant.—In the Levant there are some consular courts similar to the *chancelleries* of the Continent. The consul exercises a jurisdiction, civil and criminal. The consular jurisdiction was inherited from the Levant Company in 1825. They had jurisdiction then in civil cases, and they exercised a certain jurisdiction in criminal cases. In 1825 the Company ceased, and their jurisdiction was transferred to the Crown. Mr. Ward suggested to divide the consular duties in the Levant into three distinct divisions or heads—the political, the commercial, and the judicial. The political duties would be those performed by consuls in the interior, where there are no British subjects and no ships, and, consequently, no judicial duties and very few commercial duties. In other consulates the judicial duties are most important, and in others the commercial almost exclusively. At Constantinople, for instance, the political duties are performed by the Embassy; the judicial duties are performed by the Supreme Consular Court, and the Consul-General is charged with the

commercial duties only. The training of the consul would then depend upon the place he is intended to be appointed to: if he is intended for a consulate where the duties are mostly judicial, he certainly ought to be a barrister; if he is to be employed as a commercial consul, service in any consulate might do; if he is intended for a political post, any fit man who has not been trained to it might be selected. Sir Henry Rawlinson was of opinion that it would be very desirable to separate the political, judicial, and commercial power of the consul.

Russia and Russian Consular System.—The Russian vice-consuls in the East who are natives of Russia are very well paid, but Russia employs many Greeks and others, who are scarcely paid at all. The Russian consuls in the East are very able men; they are well paid, but cannot trade. There is an Oriental College at St. Petersburg, and one at Razan. St. Petersburg does send out a great number of employés for the diplomatic and consular service in the East. At that college they teach all the Oriental languages; they have professors in Chinese, in Mongolian, in Calmuck, in Oigour Turkish, in Turcoman, in Osmanli Turkish, in Persian, in Armenian, in Georgian, in Arabic, and, in fact, in all the vernacular Oriental dialects with which the Russian can be brought into contact.

United States Consuls.—The United States consuls are divided into two classes; one at high salaries, who are precluded from trading, and the other at low salaries of 1,000 dollars and under, who are allowed to trade. They have neither outfit nor infit; their salaries are only issuable as long as they are actually in discharge of their duties at their post. They have no allowance for journeys or office expenses, which, except as regards office books, binding archives, stationery, postage, and flagstuffs, they defray out of their own salaries; no allowance is made for clerk hire or office rent. The fees in the American service are divided into two classes, consular and notarial; the former includes fees in receipt and delivery of ship's papers, half a cent per ton. The Americans have no vice-consuls. Those who bear that designation are merely acting during the temporary absence of the consul. By law, every person employed in the American consular or diplomatic service who has access to the archives must be an American citizen.

French Consular System.—The great basis upon which the French system rests—and not only the French but the systems of four other powers—is the system of *élèves* consuls, or, as the Americans call it, pupillary consuls. France has attached to her consular corps twelve of such; Austria, also, ten. No one can enter the French consular department till he is twenty years of age, and must have undergone a great number of preparatory examinations. In the French system the consular service is almost blended with the diplomatic, and frequent removals take place from one to the other. The French pay all the expenses of the office; the United States pay none. The Russians allow nothing for their vice-consuls. The consular salaries are paid by French government bankers, upon a certain percentage. The French con-

ulates levy fees, but they are received by the *chancelier*, who is paid partly by a fixed salary, and partly by an allowance from the fees. The consul himself has nothing to do with the receipt of the money; the money received is appropriated to the expenses of the consulate; if there is any balance, it is paid into the treasury at Paris. The French consuls, after eight years' residence at the same post, get an additional outfit, which is equal to one-fifth of the salary; and one who has served twenty years is entitled to introduce his son or grandson into the consulate, as clerk or *élève*.

British Consuls in Germany.—The consul-general at Hamburg has jurisdiction over eleven vice-consuls or consular agents. Only two of the vice-consuls are Englishmen, and receive salaries; the others are foreigners, and receive only the fees. The expense of living has considerably increased in Germany. Meat, drink, lodging, and all the necessaries of life, have increased at least forty or fifty per cent. The same salary is not worth more than half what it was at the time it was fixed. The prices of everything have been raised, the prices of schools and of hotels, as well as everything else. One cause of this is the great spirit of mercantile speculation, which has been going on for some years past, which has taken capital into manufacturing and commercial industry, and operated injuriously upon those who live upon fixed incomes. Then, again, the great increase of paper currency has no doubt affected the value of money; besides which the general tone of living has increased in luxury. It is universally the case that luxury has very much increased during the last ten years. The old simplicity of living is fast dying away. The consul must, moreover, exercise a certain moderate hospitality; the more so, as he is thrown into the society of persons in a much higher rank of life than himself, and he is obliged to entertain them. In Leipzig the necessaries of life are as dear as in England, though luxuries are cheaper, music is cheaper, and the theatre is cheaper. The average of good meat is 7½d. per pound. The average of rye and wheaten bread is 2½d. per pound; that is, the average of the two.

Fees.—All consuls are entitled to the same scale of fees, and, except in China and Siam, the fees are received by the consuls solely for their own use. The total amount of fees received by all the consular body generally, exclusive of China, was 26,000*l.* In cases of loss through the reduction of fees, increase of salary is sometimes made. In the opinion of Mr. Hammond, the fees are by no means heavy, though complaints have often been made by merchants and shipowners. Mr. Atkinson complained that encouragement is practically given to the consuls to make their living, as it were, out of the fees levied upon the owners of the ships and the merchants, who have business to do with any particular countries. Mr. Mitchell complained of the fees charged on every discharged seaman. Every consul having a direct interest in the discharge and reshipment of seamen, shipmasters are frequently deterred from seeking the advice of consular officers, knowing that, when given, it may not be disinterested. Mr. Hammond recommended that all consuls should be remunerated solely by salary, and that all fees

should be received on account of Government. The same would, in the first instance, go towards the general expenses of the office and any balance remitted to the treasury. The aggregate allowance of fees and office allowances exceeds the aggregate office expenses by about 5,500*l*. Most of the witnesses concurred in recommending that all fees should be paid to the consuls on behalf of the Crown, and that they should be paid solely by salary. Mr. Wilson suggested that, with a view to check the receipt of fees by the consuls on the public account, the receipts might be by stamped documents whenever notarial acts are performed. Doubts, however, were entertained that the issue of stamps would prove an effectual check. Mr. Hammond felt full confidence in the general body of the consuls, that they would fairly account for all the fees received. In the opinion of Mr. Stoddart and Mr. Holmes, the amount collected would be increased rather than otherwise if received on the public account. Mr. Calvert stated that it would be much more pleasant for the consul if the fees were collected for Government. At Constantinople, Mr. Ward used not to enforce payment of many fees, which, if collecting for the public, he should not have hesitated to enforce.

Consular Department in the Foreign Office.—Since 1825 the consular business of the office has been collected into one division. The consular correspondence in the office is under one of the senior clerks, who has two second-class clerks to assist him, and two or three subordinate clerks. The whole of the world is divided between the two under-secretaries. Commercial and political matters are frequently so interwoven, that it is essential for the under-secretaries to have cognizance of all the consular correspondence. Much time would be saved were a third under-secretary of State appointed, with the entire charge of the consular department. As regards the very inadequate remuneration of some of the vice-consuls and consuls, Mr. Hammond said that he is extremely anxious to see the service placed on a better footing, but that it is not competent in his department to do so. The Foreign Office and Treasury generally allow an increase of salary in any case where proper grounds for it are shown to exist. The grounds upon which those increases have been given have been of a mixed character, consisting of the character of the officer himself, the length of service, the services he has performed, the increase of those duties, and generally the merits of the officer and the duties he has to perform. The instructions to the British consuls very much require to be systematized and codified. There is a very good consular code in Prussia in a very complete form; the one for Oldenburgh has also been very nicely got up. The Austrians have a remarkably good code; and also the French, the Russians, the Sardinians, and Portuguese. Such a book ought to be put at the disposal of our consuls, and sent to all. It should contain the special instructions, and then the general leading features of mercantile, maritime, and international law, with an appendix of criminal law for the Levant.

Diplomatic Service.—The two species of duties of diplomatic and consular ministers are so interwoven with each other, that it is practically impossible to separate them. Mr. Hammond was of opinion that if the consular body were to look to diplomatic employment, the tendency would be to make them think political business of more importance than consular business. Sir Henry Rawlinson, however, recommended more frequent transfer from the consular to the diplomatic body in the East. He thought it very desirable both in Turkey and Persia. The system is not unknown at present, for one of our Turkish consuls has been removed to his present post from the Constantinople embassy. Mr. Yeames also thought it would be very advantageous that persons should pass frequently from one to the other, as is done in the French. It would be a great stimulant to real merit. M. Bruck, the late Finance Minister in Vienna, was a consul. Mr. Campbell Johnstone would not recommend that the consular service should be blended with the diplomatic, but considered it highly important that the consul should have the same relative rank with regard to the diplomatic corps as in the French service. Chevalier de Colquhoun was strongly of opinion that the consular service should be made a nursery for the diplomatic service. In this country it would be extremely important that a diplomatist who has to conclude commercial treaties should be conversant with the leading principles of commerce. The consular and the diplomatic is essentially the same service; and the most important functions, as far as this nation is concerned, which diplomatic officers perform, are consular. Mr. Yeames showed the extent to which he considered it his duty to take cognizance of political questions. Instances frequently arose in the delta of the Danube after the treaty of Adrianople. The Russians then occupied the chief channel, and certain impediments arose, which gave cause for complaints. That was a commercial and at the same time also a political subject. Mr. Mark also stated that a consul's mission in Spain cannot be styled purely commercial, as he must of necessity take cognizance of political matters.

Qualifications of Consuls.—In the examination of consuls by the Civil Service Commission, it is required—1st. That they have a correct knowledge of the English language, so as to be able to express themselves clearly and correctly in writing. 2nd. That they can write and speak French correctly and fluently. 3rd. That they have a sufficient knowledge of the current language, as far as commerce is concerned, of the port at which they are appointed to reside, to enable them to communicate directly with the authorities and natives of the place; a knowledge of the Italian language being taken to meet this requirement as far as any place situated to the east of the Straits of Gibraltar is concerned, and a knowledge of the German language as regards ports within the Baltic or countries having ports in the Baltic. 4th. A sufficient knowledge of British mercantile and commercial law, to enable them to deal with questions arising between British shipowners, shipmasters, and seamen. 5th. A sufficient knowledge

of arithmetic for the nature of those duties which consuls are required to perform in drawing up commercial tables and reports. Mr. Hammond did not attach much importance to having mercantile men for consuls. There is nothing which a consul is required to perform which a man of sense, temper, and judgment, might not learn to do efficiently after an experience of six months in his office. The duties of a consul require, more than anything else, the exercise of good common sense. Mr. Holmes was of opinion that it is a great advantage for the consul, as he is principally appointed with a view to an extension of trade, that he should have some knowledge of it. A knowledge of foreign languages, a little service in the Foreign Office, and beginning as a vice-consul, are adequate qualifications for the consular service.

Salaries and Emoluments.—Mr. Hammond thought that, as a whole, British consuls are not so well remunerated as French or other foreign consuls. Take a French consul and a British consul: supposing their salaries to be the same, the whole expenditure in the one case, namely, in the case of the French consul, is borne by the Government; in the case of the English consul, he has sometimes to bear the greatest part of that expense himself. And an Englishman never can live anything like so cheaply as a foreigner. British consuls have difficulty as regards the education of their children through the inadequacy of their means. A consul ought, moreover, to be put in a situation to be able to make some provision for his family. Mr. Alston and Mr. Ward concurred in saying that there was a general complaint on the part of the consuls that they are underpaid. Mr. Hammond stated that numerous complaints have of late been received from the consuls as to the inadequacy of their remuneration; and, in some instances, the Foreign Office have felt it necessary at once to give relief. The salaries are regulated mainly with reference to the importance of the post. The main element of consideration in the matter should be the expense of living in the place where the consul is, because it is desirable that the consul should maintain a respectable position in the society of the place. It is also desirable that the consul should not be so stinted in his means as to be unable to appropriate his private fortune to the education of his family. He should rather be put in a position to save a little money, to enable him to return to England, on leave of absence, at least once every five or six years.

Trading or Non-Trading Consuls.—As a general rule, it is better for the interests of the country that the consuls shall not be allowed to trade. A trading consul has not the same position in the abstract as a non-trading consul. He is not so useful in obtaining commercial information. So long as there are trading consuls, it follows, as a necessary consequence, that they may as consuls have to testify to transactions in which they are engaged as traders. Under such a system they are often the only persons on the spot to whom traders can complain of undue charges, in which charges the consuls may themselves be concerned. Mr. Mitchell stated his objections

to a consul combining the occupation of agent or trader with his official duties. Consular officers, who are permitted to trade or act as agents, are exposed to the temptation of advancing their private interest at the expense and to the detriment of their public duty. A consul, moreover, is in a position to receive the earliest and most reliable information upon commercial matters, and he is, of course, tempted to avail himself of opportunities which are denied to others, and which can only be pursued at the expense of the mercantile communities amongst which he is placed, and of the dignity of the office which he holds. This was especially the case with our consuls on the Black Sea during the late war with Russia. Again, consular officers who, by reason of being permitted to trade, receive but very small salaries, are sometimes found to be absent from their post on their private business to the inconvenience of the shipmasters and others who may require them in their official capacity. A British consul, at an important port in Prussia, was in one year absent from the end of May to the end of September. It should be remembered, that consular officers have power in certain cases of suspicion to seize and detain ships. If, therefore, the consul who is permitted to act as agent may profit by the ship being detained, it follows that the interest of the agent militates against the independence of the consul, and personal emolument may be made to operate against public duty. Indeed, the whole consular system seems in this respect to be an anomaly. Private trading on the part of the consuls is either right or wrong. If wrong, why permit it in any case? If right, why prohibit it in certain cases? Still there are cases when it has been found very advantageous to appoint trading consuls. Thus, in the case of Mr. Holmes, of Diarbekir; being the first consul at an outlying port, where it is desirable to force the trade, he may be the means of opening a trade advantageous hereafter to this country, though he may himself gain but little by his trade. In such a case, a consul ekes out his salary; he acquires influence among the people, and spreads a taste for English manufactures. So the consuls at Trebizond and Erzerum have been the means of opening a large trade in those countries. Mr. Hammond was of opinion that, in a new district where he would act as a pioneer of trade, it was desirable that a consul should trade; but, though the first consul might trade, in all probability the second who was appointed would not be allowed to trade. Mr. Calvert, also, was of opinion that in some out-of-the-way places, where it is supposed that a trade might possibly be created, the consul, perhaps, would be in a position to overcome many difficulties which a merchant alone would not, and in such instances it might be desirable for a limited number of years to allow the consul to trade. So in some small ports where large salaries are not justifiable, Mr. Atkinson would prefer the appointment of local merchants of respectability to be remunerated by tonnage dues rather than of salaried consuls. Mr. Hammond was of opinion that all vice-consuls should be restricted from trading. Other witnesses, on the contrary, said there was less objection to trading in a vice-consul, who is locally subject to a consul. The practice of Austria, France, and the United States is to appoint non-

trading consuls exclusively. In this country the tendency of late years has been to withdraw the permission to trade.

Siam.—The British consul at Bangkok, in Siam, communicates with the Government by written language. He sends an English document, to which the consul's signature is attached, with a translation; but by the treaty the whole of the political relations rests upon the English document, and not upon the translation. The kings themselves rely upon their own knowledge of the English language to determine the precise meaning of any document. The climate of Bangkok is healthy in most respects, but many of the Europeans have had dysentery, which is very fatal. The principal trade consists in rice to China; sugar, sapan-wood, sticklac, gum benjamin, pepper, and other things, to Singapore. The Siamese manufacture nearly enough for their own use. The Lass States and the principal inland provinces have ready communication with Bangkok by the river Menem. Nakhov Chaisi and Petchaburi, both very fertile districts, can be easily reached by canals; and the shops of Yuthia, the only large provincial capital, are well stored with foreign goods. The copper ore is very rich. There are also tin mines. The animals of the country are very fine. Labourers, both Chinese and Siamese, sell themselves for about 10*l.*, and are kept afterwards to work. The slave sells himself for ever; but at any time he can change his master, or buy himself free, if he can save a little money, and he can claim to go out for his own benefit, giving half of what he receives to his master. Slavery is recognized by law. The children of the slaves are slaves also; but the child when he comes of age can free himself at the small sum of 5*l.* or 6*l.* The Siamese are very friendly towards the English. The whole population of Siam is about three millions. The revenue is chiefly derived from monopoly.

Protestant and Roman Catholic Missionaries in China.—The missionaries, generally speaking, are unmolested; but in the opinion of Mr. Alcock, the British Consul in Canton, they do not make progress in the country. The Roman Catholics are more successful, and for the following reasons:—They, in the first place, adopt the Chinese customs; they live as the Chinese live; they abstain from coffee, tobacco, and anything the Chinese discountenance, that there may be no line of distinction; they put on the Chinese dress, and are, to all intents and purposes, as far as possible Chinese. They identify themselves with the Chinese, and live in company with them in a way Protestant missionaries never dream of doing. Our missionaries have wives and children, and that necessarily isolates them from the Chinese; they require European comforts, which, in fact, puts them on a totally different footing. The Roman Catholic missionaries give the Chinese a perpetual exhibition of a large sacrifice; they renounce everything in the shape of European society, solace, comfort, and luxury, and the Chinese are capable of estimating this. They see the Protestant missionary living much like other Europeans, with the society of his countrymen, with the same dress, and with his wife and children. They do not see that it is bad living, or that there is much sacrifice in the matter; they do not see the same self-negation and the devoting of

the whole life and daily existence to one object. But Protestant missionaries are not placed under the same conditions of success as the Roman Catholics. The Roman Catholic religion approximates more to the system of worship in China than the Protestant does. The mere appearance of a Chinese temple strongly reminds one of the outside accessories of a Catholic chapel. It is more like a transfer with only certain modifications from one form of religion to another. Moreover, they go to work in a different way; they have images and signs which the Chinese may well assume to be a mere change of saint or idol. A Protestant goes and speaks upon pure abstract doctrines with nothing to attract the eye, and certainly he is at a great disadvantage in that respect in dealing with pagan people. On the whole, the Roman Catholic religion has had far more effect, as far as ostensible effects go, in the conversion of the Chinese to Christianity.

Chinese Climate.—The Chinese climate is most disastrous to Europeans. It kills a consul every three years. Every one fancies he can bear it, but after three or four years all get struck down. In the year 1850—that was, seven years after the ports had been opened—three consuls had died; one vice-consul in charge and three assistants. There were seven out of an establishment of 25, being more than a fourth. At this time, after 15 years, the total number of deaths is 11, being nearly one-half. They were all in the prime of life, between 26 and 46. Everybody seems subject, with rare exception, to one of three maladies that make fatal inroads upon the constitution. One either gets covered with boils of the most painful kind, sloughing boils lasting three or four months, or is attacked with dysentery, or, in the fresh-water valleys, with intermittent fever, and is struck down with ague. British consuls should come home every seven years at the outside. All Europeans are equally affected. The change in the mercantile community is very striking; a generation seldom lasts three or four years, which is caused by the necessity of leaving the country for restoration to health. Yet all the stations are not equally unhealthy. Shanghai is the best. The soil is a sort of gutta-percha soil, laid out in rice cultivation, an alluvial soil silted up from the river in the shape of mud. There is no spot adjacent to China where a sanitarium could be made, to which consuls indisposed might retire to restore their health. Chusan has a reputation as a sanitarium, but it is not to be trusted. There are also two or three islands between Chusan and Ningpo where Europeans go to restore themselves, but those places can afford no effectual remedy for the influence of the climate. Nothing short of England is of any use. A sojourn in England of a year or a year and a half is sufficient to restoration to health.

Chinese Exchange and Currency.—The Chinese have no native currency of their own, except the strings of a base sort of copper cash, 1,200 or 1,500 going to a dollar, and, except in one or two places where there is a local paper currency, they generally dispense with currency altogether, except for their smaller payments. All the rest is paid in bullion, which is simply weight of silver. With the foreign trade there has been introduced the practice of employing Mexican or Spanish dollars; in all the other ports,

except Shanghai, a slight premium was generally given for the Carolus dollar, which has varied from five to ten per cent. At Canton an effort was made by all the foreign merchants to establish altogether such preference for the Carolus dollar; and, after a dispute with the brokers, it was agreed that all dollars, Spanish or Mexican, should be taken at par. The Mexican and the Carolus dollar are in effect of the same value—there is not any difference; nevertheless, such is the preference given to the Carolus dollar, especially by the tea and silk men, that these pillar dollars are raised to the price of 7*s.* and 7*s.* 6*d.*, whereas the intrinsic value of the dollar is from 4*s.* to 4*s.* 6*d.* This fancy for the pillar dollar is not confined to silk and tea merchants, it runs through the whole place; there is one quotation for the Carolus dollar, and another for the Mexican dollar. If you go into a shop with a Mexican dollar, they will haggle about taking it at all; or, perhaps, they will give you 1,200 cash for the Mexican dollar, when they will give 1,800 cash for the Carolus dollar. This is, however, quite peculiar to Shanghai. There is always a certain preference given everywhere in China to the Carolus dollar; it is impossible to say why; but it has gone to an insane extent at Shanghai. The Carolus dollar, as a currency, is out of existence, and yet the demand continues increasing for them. At Foo-chow-foo there is a kind of dollar current quite different from the dollar current at Shanghai: it is the Ferdinand dollar, chopped with stamps. It is very much defaced, and in the course of time it breaks up into little bits. Mexican dollars are at a discount in comparison with this coin. It is circulated by weight. The general trade of Shanghai is, however, carried on by barter. There is not much actual money paid. A man sells a chop of tea or 100 bales of silk; the price is agreed upon with the British merchant; the merchant sells him a certain quantity of long cloths, and makes up the difference probably in opium. At all events, there is generally only a small balance left; they square the account, and the balance is then paid in dollars, but it generally amounts to a small sum. A considerable fluctuation continually takes place in the quantity of cash that the dollar has commanded. It seems to depend very much, as the prices of stocks and exchange do, on the amount of transactions that the different merchants go into. There is a great deal of buying and selling of silver and cash in the market of Soochow and at some of the larger markets, which causes a fluctuation from one hour to another, and they have carrier-pigeons from Soochow to Ningpo, bringing the rates, just as we have intelligence of the rate of consols from hour to hour. In one of the places at Ningpo, which answers for an exchange, often may be seen a crowd of apparently maniac men in the strangest kind of excitement, all screaming different numbers, and every now and then rushing at each other and striking the forefinger and thumb in the most frantic way.

SALARIES OF CONSULAR OFFICERS.

Country and Residence.	Rank.	Salary	Country and Residence.	Rank.	Salary	Country and Residence.	Rank.	Salary
RUSSIA.		£	FRANCE—cont.		£	TURKEY		£
St. Petersburg	Consul	750	Toulon	Vice-con.	50	(In Europe).		
Moscow	"	200	Corsica	Consul	200	Belgrade	Con.-gen.	900
Archangel	"	300	Algiers	Con.-gen.	800	Bucharest	Agent and	900
Riga	"	500	"	Vice-con.	300	"	con.-gen.	
Helingsfors	"	250	Oran	"	400	Giurgevo	Con. Agt.	100
Wiborg	"	150	Bona	"	100	Jassy	Consul	700
Warsaw	Con.-gen.	1,000	Philippville	"	100	Galatz and Ibralla	Vice-con.	250
Odesa	"	750	Martinique	Consul	100	Reni and Ismail	Con. Agt.	100
"	Vice-con.	80	Guadeloupe	"	nil.	Varna	Consul	500
Kherson	"	250				Souline	Vice-con.	200
Berdianak	Consul	400	SPAIN.			Bonsa Serai	Consul	500
Taganrog	"	200	Madrid	Consul	200	Mostar	Vice-con.	200
Kertch	"	400	Bilboa	"	350	Constantinople	Con.-gen.	1,800
Theodosia	Vice-con.	250	San Sebastian	Vice-con.	100	"	Vice-con.	600
Soukoom Kald and	Consul	500	Vigo	Consul	400	"	canceller	
Redout Kald.	"		Cadix	"	500	"	2nd Vice-	
"	Vice-con.	250	San Juan	Vice-con.	150	"	con.	500
SWEDEN.			Seville	Consul	300	"	Judge of	2,000
Stockholm	Consul	500	Malaga	"	300	"	Con. Ct.	
Gottenburgh	"	400	Cartagena	"	400	"	Vice-con.	600
NORWAY.			Alicante	"	400	"	canc. &	
Christiania	Con.-gen.	700	Barcelona	"	400	"	regtr. to	
DENMARK.			Mahon	Vice-con.	300	"	Con. Ct.	
Elsinore	Consul	700	Teneriffe	Consul	500	"	Law clerk	350
"	Vice-con.	150	Havana	Con.-gen.	1,000	"	to ditto	
Copenhagen	"	150	Trinidad	Vice-con.	300	Mersini	Vice-con.	250
St. Thomas	Consul	250	St. Jago de Cuba	Consul	300	Rodosto	Con. Agt.	nil.
PRUSSIA.			Puerto Rico	"	800	Dardanelles	Consul	300
Dantzic	Con.-gen.	700	Manilla	"	1,000	Enos	Con. Agt.	40
Memel	Vice-con.	300	"	Vice-con.	250	Salonica	Consul	350
Stettin and Swine-	Consul	500	Sual	"	400	Cavallo	Vice-con.	200
münde.	"		Iloilo	"	400	Larissa	"	250
Königsberg and	"	500	PORTUGAL.			Volo	Vice-con.	150
Pillau	"	100	Lisbon	Consul	600	Monastir	Consul	500
Cologne	"	100	Oporto	Vice-con.	300	Durrasso	Vice-con.	250
GERMANY.			Madeira	Consul	500	Usrup	"	350
Hamburg	Ch. d'Affs.	1,500	St. Michael's	"	300	Preveza	Consul	550
"	Con.-g.	300	Fayal	"	400	"	Vice-con.	150
Bremen	Vice-con.	150	Terceira	Vice-con.	100	"	cancel.	
Lubeck	"	150	Cape Verd Islands	Consul	100	"	Vice-con.	100
Cuxhaven	"	100	Mozambique	"	400	Scutari	"	130
Kiel	"	75	Quillimane	"	500	Crete	Consul	300
Leipzig	Con.-gen.	750	SWITZERLAND.			TURKEY (in Asia).		
Frankfort	Consul	300	Geneva	Consul	100	Brussa	Consul	350
NETHERLANDS.			SARDINIA.			Smyrna	"	700
Amsterdam	Consul	300	Genoa	Consul	400	"	Vice-con.	250
Rotterdam	"	500	Nice	"	200	"	cancel.	
Flushing	Vice-con.	150	Cagliari	"	350	"	Chaplain	250
Batavia	Consul	200	TUSCANY.			"	Surgeon	200
Surabaya	"	200	Leghorn	Consul	350	Adalia	Vice-con.	100
Samarang	"	200	MODENA.			Macri	"	50
Surinam	"	150	Castara	Consul		Samos	"	nil.
Curaçoa	"	nil.	ROMAN STATES.			Rhodes	Consul	400
BELGIUM.			Ancona	Consul	350	Scio	Vice-con.	100
Antwerp	Consul	500	"	Vice-con.	50	Mytilene	"	200
Ostend	"	300	Rome	Con. agent	200	Erzerum	Consul	600
Ghent	Vice-con.	100	TWO SICILIES.			Trebizond	"	300
FRANCE.			Naples	Consul	400	Diarbekir	"	400
Paris	Consul	100	"	Vice-con.	100	Samsoun & Sinope	"	300
Dunkirk	"	500	Gallipoli	"	100	Bagdad	Con.-gen.	nil.
Calais	"	400	Brindisi	"	25	Moosul	Vice-con.	250
Boulogne	"	400	Palermo	Consul	450	Damascus	Consul	600
Havre	"	650	Messina	Vice-con.	150	Aleppo	"	500
Caen	Vice-con.	150	AUSTRIA.			Alexandretta	Vice-con.	200
Cherbourg	Consul	500	Venice	Con.-gen.	700	Beirut	Con.-gen.	500
Granville	Vice-con.	100	Trieste	Vice-con.	100	"	Vice-con.	150
Brest	Consul	500	Fiume	"	100	Antioch	"	200
Nantes	"	300	GREECE.			Jernusalem	Consul	550
Charente	"	300	Patras	Consul	700	Caiffa	Vice-con.	250
Bordeaux	"	450	Syra	"	400	Jaffa	Consul	300
Bayonne	"	400	Piræus	"	350	Jedda	Vice-con.	150
Marseilles	"	550	Misolonghi	Vice-con.	150	EGYPT.		
						Egypt	Agent &	1,800
						"	Con.-gen.	
						Alexandri	Consul	600
						"	Vice-con.	300
						"	canceller	
						"	2nd Vice-	300
							consul	

SALARIES OF CONSULAR OFFICERS—continued.

Country and Residence.	Rank.	Salary	Country and Residence.	Rank.	Salary	Country and Residence.	Rank.	Salary
EGYPT—cont.		£	SALVADOR.		£	MONTÉ VIDEO.		
Alexandria . . .	Surgeon	100	Sonsonate . . .	Consul	200	Monte Video . .	Ch. d'Affs.	
Cairo . . .	Consul	400					& con.-g.	£
Damietta . . .	Vice-con.	60	NICARAGUA.				Vice-con.	500
Suez . . .	"	200	Realijo . . .	Vice-con.	200			
TRIPOLI.			COSTA RICA.			PARAGUAY.		
Tripoli . . .	Con.-gen.	800	San José . . .	Consul	200	Asuncion . . .	Consul	700
" . . .	Vice-con.	300				BRASIL.		
Bengazi . . .	"	400	HONDURAS.			Rio de Janeiro .	Consul	800
Moorook . . .	"	200	Comayagua . .	Consul	200	Maranham . . .	"	200
Ghadames . . .	"	200				Para . . .	"	450
TUNIS.			MOQUITO.			Pernambuco . .	"	500
Tunis . . .	Agent &	1,600	Grey Town . .	Consul	600	Ceara . . .	"	50
" . . .	Con.-gen.		HAYTI.			Paraiba . . .	Vice-con.	200
" . . .	Vice-con.	450	Port-au-Prince .	Con.-gen.	1,200	Maceio . . .	"	200
Susa . . .	"	300	" . . .	Vice-con.	500	Bahia . . .	Consul	800
MOROCCO.			SAN DOMINGO.			Rio Grande do Sul	"	800
Tangier . . .	Ch. d'Aff.	1,600	San Domingo .	Consul	800	St. Catharine's .	"	500
" . . .	Vice-con.	350				SANDWICH ISLANDS.		
Mogador . . .	"	250	NEW GRANADA.			Wahoo . . .	Con.-gen.	1,000
Tetuan . . .	"	250	Bogota . . .	Ch. d'Affs.	nil.	GEORGIAN OF WIND-		
Rabat . . .	"	250	" . . .	& con.-g.		WARD ISLANDS.		
Larache . . .	"	150	" . . .	Vice-con.	400	Tahiti . . .	Consul	500
Saffee . . .	"	250	Carthage . . .	Consul	1,000			
Maragan . . .	"	250	Panama . . .	"	1,200	SOCIETY OR LEE-		
Draal Balda . .	"	150	Chagres & Colon	Vice-con.	400	WARD ISLANDS.		
PERU.			Santa Martha .	"	400	Ralales . . .	Consul	500
Tabrees . . .	Con.-gen.	600	Rio Hacha . . .	"	200			
Teheran . . .	Consul	500	VENEZUELA.			NAVIGATOR'S		
Recht . . .	"	500	Caracas . . .	Ch. d'Affs.	1,400	ISLANDS.		
ARYTESINIA.			La Guayra . .	& con.-g.	200	Samoa . . .	Consul	250
Masowah . . .	Consul	500	Puerto Cabello	Vice-con.	200	Feejee Islands .	"	250
MUSCAT.			Maracaibo . .	"	200	Tonga Islands .	"	250
Zanzibar . . .	Consul	Pd by E.I.C	Bolivar . . .	"	250			
UNITED STATES.			EQUATOR.			BORNEO.		
Portland . . .	Consul	400	Guayaquil . .	Ch. d'Affs.	1,000	Brunei . . .	Con.-gen.	600
Boston . . .	"	200	" . . .	& con.-g.	200	COMORA ISLANDS.		
New York . . .	"	500		Vice-con.		Johanna . . .	Consul	150
Philadelphia .	"	500	PERU.			SHERBRO RIVER.		
Baltimore . .	"	500	Lima . . .	Ch. d'Affs.		Sierra Leone .	Con.-gen.	
Richmond . .	"	500	" . . .	& con.-g.		Sherbro Island .	Con. Agt.	250
Charleston . .	"	500	Callao . . .	Consul	200	BIGHT OF BENIN.		
Savannah . .	"	500	Islay . . .	"	500	Lagos . . .	Consul	500
Mobile . . .	"	450	Arica . . .	Vice-con.	300	BIGHT OF BIAPRA.		
New Orleans .	"	700	Payta . . .	"	100	Fernando Po . .	Consul	500
Galveston . .	"	300	BOLIVIA.			LIBERIA.		
San Francisco .	"	500	Sucre . . .	Ch. d'Affs.	nil.	Monrovia . . .	Consul	500
Chicago . . .	"	400	" . . .	& con.-g.		SIAM.		
Buffalo . . .	"	400	CHILI.			Bankok . . .	Consul	1,200
MEXICO.			Santiago . . .	Ch. d'Affs.	nil.	CHINA.		
Mexico . . .	Consul	250	" . . .	& con.-g.		Canton . . .	Consul	1,400
Vera Cruz . .	"	500	Valparaiso . .	Consul	nil.	" . . .	Vice-con.	750
Laguna de Terminas	Vice-con.	150	Concepcion . .	Vice-con.	250	" . . .	"	750
Tampico . . .	Consul	500	Coquimbo . .	Consul	300	Whampoa . . .	Con. Agt.	150
San Blas . . .	"	300	Caldera . . .	Vice-con.	250	Macao . . .	Consul	1,200
Acapulco . . .	Vice-con.	250	BUENOS AYRES.			Amoy . . .	Vice-con.	750
Mazatlan . . .	"	150	Buenos Ayres .	Ch. d'Affs.		Foo-chow-foo .	Consul	1,200
GUATEMALA.			" . . .	& con.-g.		" . . .	Vice-con.	750
Guatemala . .	Ch. d'Affs.	1,000	Rosario . . .	Vice-con.	500	Ningpo . . .	"	800
	& con.-g.		" . . .	"	400	Shanghai . . .	Consul	1,500
						" . . .	Vice-con.	750

FRENCH CONSULAR SALARIES.

Residence.	Salary. Francs.	Residence.	Salary. Francs.	Residence.	Salary. Francs.
CONSULS-GENERAL.					
Alexandrie	35,000	Canée (La)	10,000	Nice	13,000
Amsterdam	20,000	Cap de Bonne Espérance	20,000	Nouvelle Orléans	22,000
Anvers	18,000	Carthagène (Espagne)	10,000	Odessa	15,000
Bagdad	20,000	Charleston	15,000	Ostende	10,000
Barcelone	20,000	Christiania	15,000	Palermo	15,000
Belgrade	22,000	Civita Vecchia	12,000	Palma	12,000
Beyrouth	20,000	Coblitz	15,000	Panama	20,000
Bucharest	20,000	Corfou	15,000	Philadelphie	18,000
Caracas	20,000	Corogne (La)	12,000	Port Louis	25,000
Gènes	18,000	Damas	15,000	Port Maurice	10,000
Guatemala	20,000	Danzig	15,000	Porto	10,000
Havane (La)	40,000	Djeddah	12,000	Porto Rico	18,000
Lima	40,000	Dublin	17,000	Richmond	15,000
Livourne	17,000	Edinbourg	16,000	Riga	12,000
London	40,000	Elisneur	15,000	Rio Janeiro	26,000
Montevideo	24,000	Erzerum	12,000	Rotterdam	15,000
New York	25,000	Fernambouc	18,000	Sainte Marthe	18,000
Port-au-Prince	25,000	Galatz	12,000	St. Pétersbourg	30,000
Quito	20,000	Gibraltar	15,000	St. Sébastien	10,000
Santiago du Chili	35,000	Glasgow	16,000	Salonique	12,000
Smyrne	22,000	Guayaquil (transféré au Callao)	15,000	San Francisco	60,000
Tanger	22,000	Honolulu	25,000	Santander	10,000
Tripoli de Barbarie	20,000	Jassy	20,000	Santiago de Cuba	18,000
Tunis	22,000	Jérusalem	18,000	Santa Domingo	18,000
Venise	24,000	Larnaca	10,000	Seville	12,000
CONSULS.					
Alep	15,000	Leipzig	10,000	Shang-Hai	28,000
Ancone	10,000	Lisbonne	20,000	Singapour	25,000
Assomption (Paraguay)	18,000	Liverpool	22,000	Stettin	10,000
Bahia	20,000	Malagar	14,000	Sydney	30,000
Belem Para	20,000	Malte	18,000	Syria	12,000
Bilboa	10,000	Manille	20,000	Tampico	25,000
Boston	15,000	Mayence	15,000	Tiflis	14,000
Breïme	10,000	Milan	14,000	Trebizonde	12,000
Cadix	15,000	Mogador	10,000	Trieste	16,000
Cagliari	12,000	Moscow	18,000	Valence	12,000
Caire (La)	15,000	Mosoul	12,000	Valparaiso	30,000
Calcutta	45,000	Naples	18,000	Varsovie	18,000
		Newcastle	16,000	Vera Cruz (La)	25,000
				Zanzibar	18,000

AMERICAN DIPLOMATIC SALARIES.

Country.	Salary. Dolls.	Country.	Salary. Dolls.	Country.	Salary. Dolls.	
Envoy EXTRAORDINARY, MINISTERS PLENIPOTENTIARY.						
Great Britain	17,500	Russia	2,000	Hong Kong	2,000	
France	15,000	Austria	2,000	Calcutta	2,500	
Spain	12,000	Prussia	2,000	Halifax	2,000	
Russia	12,000	Switzerland	1,500	Melbourne	4,000	
Austria	12,000	Rome	1,500	Nassau	2,000	
Prussia	12,000	Naples	1,500	Kingston (Jamaica)	2,000	
Switzerland	7,500	Sardinia	1,500	Holland :—		
Rome	7,500	Belgium	1,500	Rotterdam	2,000	
Naples	7,500	Holland	1,500	Amsterdam	1,000	
Sardinia	7,500	Portugal	1,500	Prussia :—		
Belgium	7,500	Denmark	1,500	Aix-la-Chapelle	2,500	
Holland	7,500	Sweden	1,500	France :—		
Portugal	7,500	Brazil	2,000	Paris	5,000	
Denmark	1,500	Peru	2,000	Havre	5,000	
Sweden	1,500	Chili	1,500	Marseilles	2,500	
Brazil	2,000	Argentine Republic	1,500	Bordeaux	2,000	
Peru	2,000	New Granada	1,500	Lyons	1,000	
Chili	1,500	Bolivia	1,500	La Rochelle	1,000	
Argentine Republic	1,500	Ecuador	1,500	Nantes	1,000	
New Granada	1,500	Venezuela	1,500	Spain :—		
Bolivia	1,500	Guatemala	1,500	Cadiz	1,500	
Ecuador	1,500	Nicaragua	1,500	Malaga	1,500	
Venezuela	1,500	Mexico	2,000	St. Jago de Cuba	2,000	
Guatemala	1,500			Malanyas	2,000	
Nicaragua	1,500	CONSULS.			St. John's (P. R.)	2,000
Mexico	2,000	Great Britain :—		Trinidad de Cuba	2,000	
		London	7,500	Ponce (P. R.)	1,500	
		Liverpool	7,500	Havanna	6,000	
		Glasgow	4,000	Portugal :—		
		Dundee	2,000	Lisbon	1,500	
		Newcastle	1,500	Funchal	1,500	
		Leeds	1,500	Belgium :—		
		Belfast	2,000	Antwerp	2,500	
SECRETARIES OF LEGATION.						
Great Britain	2,500					
France	2,250					
Spain	2,250					

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AMERICAN DIPLOMATIC SALARIES—continued.

Country.	Salary. Dolls.	Country.	Salary. Dolls.	Country.	Salary. Dolls.
Russia:—		Brasil:—		Sardinia:—	
St. Petersburg	2,500	Rio de Janeiro	6,000	Spezia	750
Denmark:—		Pernambuco	2,000	Greece:—	
St. Thomas	4,000	Argentine Republic:—		Athens	1,000
Elsmore	1,500	Buenos Ayres	2,000	Turkey:—	
Austria:—		Peru:—		Candia	1,000
Trieste	2,000	Callao	2,500	Cyprus	1,000
Vienna	1,000	Chili:—		Ionian Islands:—	
Saxony:—		Valparaiso	3,000	Zante	1,000
Leipzig	1,500			Africa:—	
Bavaria:—		CONSULS AND COMMERCIAL AGENTS.		Monrovia	1,000
Munich	1,000	Great Britain:—		Zanzibar	1,000
Hanseatic and Free Cities:—		Southampton	1,000	New Zealand:—	
Bremen	2,000	Bristol	1,000	Bay Islands	1,000
Hamburg	2,000	Leith	1,000	Hayti:—	
Frankfort-on-the-Maine, &c. .	2,000	Dublin	1,000	Cape Haytien	1,000
Wurtemberg:—		Cork	1,000	Aux Cayes	500
Stuttgart	1,000	Galway	1,000	Mexico:—	
Baden:—		Bombay	1,000	Mexico	1,000
Carlsruhe	1,000	Singapore	1,000	Paso del Norte	500
Switzerland:—		Gibraltar	750	Tampico	1,000
Basle	1,500	Island of Malta	1,000	Matamoros	1,000
Zurich	1,500	Cape Town	1,000	Tabasco	500
Geneva	1,500	Port Louis	1,000	Masatlan	500
Sardinia:—		St. John's, N. B.	1,000	Tehuantepec	1,000
Genoa	1,500	Pictou	1,000	Manatitan	1,000
Tuscany:—		Demerara	1,000	Central America:—	
Leghorn	1,500	Sydney	1,000	Omca and Truxillo	1,000
Kingdom of the Two Sicilies:—		Falkland Islands	1,000	San José	500
Naples	1,500	Hobart Town	1,000	New Grenada:—	
Palermo	1,500	Bermuda	1,000	Carthagena	500
Mezzina	1,000	Turk's Island	1,000	Sanbanillo	500
Turkish Dominions:—		Barbadoes	1,000	Venezuela:—	
Constantinople	2,500	Island of Trinidad	1,000	Ciudad Bolívar	750
Smyrna	2,000	St. Helena	1,000	Puerto Cabello	750
Beirut	2,000	St. Christopher	1,000	Maracaibo	750
Jerusalem	1,000	Antigua	1,000	Ecuador:—	
Alexandria	2,500	Ceylon	1,000	Guayaquil	750
Barbary States:—		Russia:—		Brasil:—	
Tangier	2,500	Odesa	1,500	Maranham Island	750
Tripoli	2,500	Galets	1,000	Rio Grande	1,000
Tunis	2,500	France:—		Bahia	1,000
China:—		Martinique	750	Pars	1,000
Canton	2,000	Miquelon	750	Uruguay:—	
Shanghai	2,000	Spain:—		Montevideo	1,000
Amoy	2,500	Barcelona	750	Chili:—	
Foo-chow	2,500	Manilla	750	Talcahuano	1,000
Ningpo	2,500	Portugal:—		Peru:—	
Sandwich Islands:—		Macao	1,000	Paita	500
Honolulu	4,000	Mozambique	750	Timber	500
Hayti:—		Fayal	750	Sandwich Islands:—	
Port-au-Prince	2,000	St. Jago, Cape Verd	750	Lahaina	1,000
City of St. Domingo	1,500	Hanover and Brunswick:—		Hilo	1,000
Mexico:—		Hanover	500	Navigator's Islands:—	
Vera Cruz	2,500	Mecklenburg-Schwerin and		Apia	1,000
Acapulco	2,000	Mecklenburg-Strelitz:—		Society Islands:—	
Central America:—		Schwerin	500	Tahiti	1,000
San Juan del Norte	2,000	Oldenburg:—		Feejee Islands:—	
San Juan del Sur	2,000	Oldenburg	500	Lanthal	1,000
New Grenada:—		Danish Dominions:—		Holland:—	
Panama	2,500	Santa Cruz	750	Batavia (Com. Agt.)	1,000
Aspinwall	2,500	Sweden and Norway:—		Paramaribo	500
Venezuela:—		Gothenburg	750	St. Martin	500
La Guayra	1,500	Austria:—		Curacao	500
		Venice	750		

No. CXV.—BILLETING SYSTEM.

Report from the Select Committee appointed to inquire into the Operation of the present System for the Billeting of Troops. (363.)

THE Committee was appointed on the 22nd May, 1858, and it consisted of Mr. Eliot Yorke, General Codrington, Mr. Black, Mr. Blackburn, Sir John

Ramsden, Colonel North, Mr. Smith Child, Mr. Cobbett, Colonel Taylor, Mr. Baxter, Captain Esmonde, Mr. Ridley, and Sir Frederick Smith.

The Committee examined the following witnesses:—Mr. William Edward Baxter, M.P.; James Morham and Francis Dowling, billet masters, Edinburgh and Dublin; Henry Edward Allen, Bristol; John Atkinson, Liverpool; Henry Lowett, Chertsey; William Gillies, Glasgow; John Balmбра, Newcastle; Jeremiah Clarke, London; Michael Carey, Dublin; Samuel Ingham, Manchester; Joseph Stinton, Birmingham; Thomas Teal, Bolton; G. Candelet, Manchester; Joseph Ogburn, Portsmouth; William Spirett, Leeds, licensed victuallers; Richard Allen Stephens, superintendent of police, Birmingham; the Lord Provost of Edinburgh; Colonel Edwin Kelly; Colonel Alexander Gordon; Richard Charles Kirby, accountant-general of the army; Sir Richard Mayne, K.C.B.; and William Ninnis Tiddy, inspector of police.

The Committee reported as follows:—

That the power of billeting troops in Great Britain and Ireland is given principally by the 69th clause of the Mutiny Act, which enacts that all constables of parishes shall billet in victualling-houses, the officers, soldiers, and horses of her Majesty's forces; that they shall be received by the occupiers of such houses, and if such occupier have not sufficient accommodation therein, then in some good and sufficient quarters, to be provided by the licensed victuallers. By the 72nd clause of the Act, power is given in Great Britain, but not in Ireland, of demanding a hot meal for each soldier; consisting of 1½ lb. of meat, 1 lb. of bread, 1 lb. of vegetables, 2 pints of small beer, and vinegar, salt and pepper, for the sum of 10d.; and, when soldiers are not on the march, and do not demand the hot meal, then that the use of fire, candles, vinegar, and salt shall be found for the sum of 1½d. per night. Private houses in Great Britain are not liable to billets, and the Legislature seems to have considered the obligation to provide lodging for soldiers employed in the service of the State as devolving on the victuallers in consequence of their annual licence. Until the year 1857, private houses, as well as victualling-houses in Scotland, were liable to have soldiers billeted upon them; but last year the Mutiny Act in reference to Scotland having been assimilated to that of England, the licensed victualler alone remained liable, and thus in proportion as private houses were relieved, the hardship was concentrated upon the licensed victualler. This has given rise to strong complaints from Scotland. The terms of the present and former Mutiny Acts in relation to Ireland are that soldiers may be billeted in the houses of licensed victuallers, and (if there is not sufficient room in victualling-houses) then "in such manner as heretofore has been customary."

Your Committee are of opinion that it is absolutely necessary for the public service that the power of billeting, now given by Act of Parliament, should be continued, in order to facilitate the march of troops, and to provide for cases of emergency. Your Committee have received evidence on the complaints made of the working of the present system. The introduction of railways has of late years materially lightened the burden of billeting, and complaints are rare of the conduct of disciplined soldiers on the march, or of their numbers on such occasions being oppressive.

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Although in one or two instances, witnesses representing bodies of licensed victuallers have objected even to the power of billeting being retained under any circumstances, yet the evidence does not show such objection to be general; nor has evidence been produced of any effectual substitute for such power in times of difficulty and disturbance, or even for the movement of troops upon ordinary occasions. The evidence of military authority is decisively in favour of the continuance of such power.

The complaints of the practice of billeting may be classed under four heads:—1st. The continuous billeting of regiments. 2nd. The number and constancy of stationary billets in towns, where there are permanent recruiting parties. 3rd. The particular class from which of late years the recruits have been drawn. 4th. The insufficiency of the remuneration allowed by the Mutiny Act. With regard to continuous billeting, and especially of militia regiments, your Committee are of opinion that to billet troops for lengthened periods in any district is, under ordinary circumstances, to throw a heavy burden upon the licensed victuallers of that district, and is attended with injurious consequences to the respectability and good order of their houses. Your Committee are also of opinion that the practice of billeting troops for lengthened periods is disadvantageous in a military point of view. The dispersion of militia soldiers especially, amongst public-houses in all parts of a town, is adverse to that system of discipline and control which it is the very object of the embodiment or assembling such a force to establish. Your Committee recommend, therefore, that militia regiments, with their officers and non-commissioned officers, who are responsible for their discipline, organization, and good conduct, should, when embodied, be quartered in barracks; and that they should not be billeted, except upon a march, or in cases of emergency.

With regard to the second point, your Committee are of opinion that in this case also a burden is thrown upon a particular district, whilst it is not practically of advantage to the military service. Your Committee, therefore, suggest that in all places where recruits are assembled in considerable numbers, such as the head-quarters of recruiting districts, of which there are four in England, viz., London, Liverpool, Bristol, and York; two in Scotland, viz., Edinburgh and Glasgow; and three in Ireland, viz., Dublin, Cork, and Belfast; as well as in those places where there is an assembly of recruits for embarking or disembarking, the licensed victuallers might practically be relieved, by Government providing, as they have done at Dublin and Bristol, a building into which recruits are received upon enlistment; but the Commander-in-Chief shows a positive objection to such recruits being placed amongst soldiers in regular barracks, or subjected to the strictness of regular military discipline.

With regard to the third point, evidence, principally from large manufacturing towns, has been given before your Committee, that the class from which the recruits have of late years been drawn is such that there exists very great objection on the part of the licensed victuallers to receive them into their houses. This has led to a money payment being connived at, in order to supersede that obligation of the law which requires the victuallers to find or to provide the actual lodging. Most of them consider it better to pay almost any sum, by any means and in spite of law, rather than admit recruits into their houses. This money is, by an objectionable practice, constantly paid to the recruit himself, who uses it for any purpose he chooses; and this system again gives rise to another corresponding evil

for the victualler, viz., the liability of unfair demand by the recruit, who, knowing the landlord's objection, frequently makes his right of billet the means of extorting money to "pay him out."

The practice of "paying out" obtains systematically in some places with the non-commissioned officers and men of the recruiting party itself; and victuallers are thus improperly induced to buy off, by a money payment, men who have perhaps no intention whatever of occupying their billets. This practice of paying money for any such purpose into the hands of the soldier is objectionable in all respects.

If, with regard to the fourth point, it is intended that the licensed victualler shall be compelled to give free lodging to soldiers employed on the public service, the question of remuneration for lodging need not be touched upon. There is at present no payment for this purpose; the payment is confined to the sum of 10*d.* for a hot meal to the soldier when on march; and if not on march, then to the payment of 1½*d.* for the means of cooking his food when more permanently billeted. But this is felt as a hardship: billeting does cause a positive outgoing expense to the victualler, for he has to pay more than the Government allowance to escape what he considers the greater evil, of admission to his house; and the sum of 1½*d.* per day is so small, that he rarely considers it worth while to demand the payment. On the other hand, if it is intended that a reasonable remuneration shall be given to the licensed victualler for the food and accommodation which he is bound to provide, your Committee are of opinion that the allowances ought to be increased and put upon a different footing. The allowance for a hot meal formerly varied, according to the price of provisions, and as the Mutiny Act is passed annually, such alteration, giving sufficient remuneration, may easily be made from time to time. The 1½*d.* allowed for means of cooking should, in the opinion of your Committee, be changed to an allowance of from 4*d.* to 6*d.* per night to be paid for each billet, for bed and the use of fire, light, salt, pepper, and vinegar. Your Committee recommend that payment should be made to the licensed victualler for lodging the soldier at night.

The practice of giving money to the soldier "to buy him out," as it is termed, should immediately be prohibited, and your Committee suggest that the billet paper given by the head constable may, where practicable, be directly transferred to registered lodging-houses, by an arrangement between the constable and the victualler. Although these lodging-houses are registered solely for sanitary purposes, yet they are thus brought under cognisance of the police; and, without relieving the victualler of the responsibility of finding accommodation, they might be made the means of practically relieving him from inconvenience; for the soldier, or the recruit, might take his billet straight to the lodging-house, instead of to the victualler. It resolves itself into a question of money: if the Government consents to pay for lodging, the sum might be paid by the non-commissioned officer to the constable for the billet paper itself; this billet paper being detained by the lodging-house keeper, would be the subsequent voucher for obtaining payment from the constable. If the Government does not pay for lodging, the non-payment operates as a tax upon the licensed victualler; but in either case this billet paper upon the real place of lodging would become the means of preventing any money transaction with the soldier or recruit personally.

There has been a difference in the method of paying the money due for

billets, and there is also a difference of opinion as to the person through whom such payment should be made. By the law, previous to 1856, the officer or non-commissioned officer paid the billet-money direct to the victualler; by the Act of 1856, the money was to be paid by the officer to the head constable; by the Act of 1858, the money is to be paid direct by the officer to the victualler. There has been no alteration in the law with regard to providing waggons, carts, horses, and drivers; the money due upon this head has always been, and still is, paid to the constable; and by the Mutiny Act for marines on shore, the constable has still to receive the money due for billets. It seems to your Committee that the payment to the head constable is the simplest and best for the victualler and for the military; for whilst it prevents that money payment between the victualler and the soldier or recruit, which certainly gives rise to abuse, it enables the victualler, or proprietor of carts, to receive without loss of time payment at the office, which is known to him. The authorities of the metropolitan police object to this duty being thrown on that force because, first, it adds to the labour of keeping accounts, for which no sufficient staff exists; because, secondly, it interferes with the proper duties of constables, as guardians of the public peace, and protectors of property, and connects them with transactions of a pecuniary character with licensed victuallers, which is highly objectionable.

Your Committee, however, does not entirely concur in the soundness of these objections. There is an exemption from billets given by the 73rd section of the Mutiny Act to certain vintners of the city of London; it may be worthy of consideration whether such exemptions should continue. Your Committee have observed with pleasure that there is a kindly and liberal feeling on the part of the victuallers towards both the regular army and the militia; and they are of opinion that it should be the policy and aim of the Government to prevent the soldier being an unwelcome guest to the landlords of those houses in which by law he must occasionally be lodged and fed.

The following items are gathered from the evidence:—

Form and Apportionment of Billet.—The form runs thus:—"Police Chambers, Edinburgh, 28th March, 1858. No. 4,542. To Mr. Calexte Dejai, No. 100, Princes Street. By order of the Magistrates and Council of the City of Edinburgh, you are hereby required to quarter one man of the East India Company's regiment for 24 days. James Morham, billet-master." The foot-note is—"By the Mutiny Act, you are entitled to the sum of one penny halfpenny per diem for each man, which will be paid to you by the soldiers for supplying them with candles, vinegar and salt, fire, and utensils for dressing and eating their meat." And by the Mutiny Act it is enacted, "That if any person liable by this Act to have any officer or soldier quartered upon him shall refuse to receive and to afford proper accommodation in the house in which such officer or soldier is quartered, he shall forfeit for every such offence any sum not exceeding five pounds, nor less than forty shillings." In Edinburgh, the sergeant billets the men in fair proportion. In the issue of billets for a party of recruits, he sees that the men are not scattered too much. In Bristol, however, each house is taken alphabetically, and so many men are billeted upon it, whether it be

large or small. In Liverpool a debtor and creditor account is kept at the billet office with each licensed victualler of the number he has received during the past year. Those who have had less than the average are debited with them, and are liable to have them billeted upon them the following year. In Leeds billets are not issued against houses above a mile from the borough; so it is in Newcastle. In London there are 17 police divisions, and within each division there are several centres. The billets are distributed very unequally over the whole metropolitan area; from many stations they are rarely issued. At Dublin, complaints are made of the late hours at which applications are made for billets.

Payment of Billet Money.—A witness stated that he has never, with one or two exceptions, received the Government allowance of 1½d. per night when he has paid out the recruit or soldier. The law is constantly violated. The amount is not worth the trouble, and is not generally applied for. It was proposed that the allowance should be paid through the constable. The allowance should never be given to the recruit, but should be paid to the publican by the non-commissioned officer or the constable. Sir Richard Mayne, however, objected to the employment of the police in paying the money, not only because of the additional labour, but because he considered the military officer the proper person to undertake a matter of military expenditure.

Paying Out.—When money is given to the men for accommodation elsewhere, they spend it at once for other purposes; and when objection is made to take the men into the houses, it is a matter of arrangement in each case what the men will take for going elsewhere. In some instances, even 1s. apiece had to be paid. Frequent cases of extortion take place on the part of the recruiting sergeant and the recruits. A great many recruits are anxious to make money by their billets, and they do make money. They get a billet during the day, and do not go to the houses until late at night—sometimes twelve or one in the morning—in a state of intoxication, often for the purpose of annoying the publican and extorting a large amount of money to pay them out; and, in many instances, when they are paid out, they go back to the rendezvous, or some night-house where they are allowed to sit and revel away the money for their lodging.

Recruits.—The principal complaints lie against recruits as being frequently very filthy in their habits and disorderly in their conduct, and as being a great nuisance in the house of any respectable publican. The following case was reported by Mr. Allen :—

“ S. W. Jones, New Dock Gates, Hotwells, complained of the disgraceful misconduct of some soldiers of a regiment whilst billeted at his house, which he believes caused the death of his wife. The facts appear to be as follow: Mr. and Mrs. Jones retired to bed at about twelve o'clock on the night of the 19th of December last, two of the soldiers being out. After being in bed some time, they heard a loud noise, which made the whole house vibrate, caused by one of the men running and thumping at the front door, endeavouring to force it open. This very much

frightened Mrs. Jones, who was then near her confinement. Hearing this noise, Mr. Jones opened his bedroom window, and asked what was the matter, when he found that it was one of the men who were billeted upon him. He was very drunk, and Mr. Jones refused to admit him. He then retired to bed again. In a short time after the noise was repeated, and, after allowing him to remain some time, he heard the cry of 'Landlord! landlord!' by another voice; when he opened the window, and found the man at the door with a policeman. The man said, 'If you don't open the door, and let me in, I will smash every window in the house.' The policeman did not interfere, although Mr. Jones asked him to take the man into custody for his riotous conduct. During the whole of this time Mrs. Jones was in the greatest state of excitement, and she begged Mr. Jones not to go out of the room; she was much frightened, and trembled, and complained of being very cold; the next morning she complained of being ill, and unable to get out of bed; she continued much excited, her pulse having gone up to 150 per minute. Dr. Crichton was sent for, and he pronounced her to be suffering from the pains of premature labour. From that time she never got out of her bed, and expired, raving mad, on Sunday morning, 20th December last."

Since the late war the billeting system has grown much worse. There appears to be a worse class of men going into the army. The recruits are generally a class of men whom it is very objectionable to have in a respectable house. Though this complaint was made by many witnesses, Colonel Kelly denied that the recruits since the Crimean war were more filthy in their habits or worse conducted than was formerly the case. Many witnesses suggested that in large towns, where there are permanent recruiting parties, or through which soldiers are constantly passing, Government should provide separate building accommodation. Colonel Gordon suggested that at each head-quarter recruiting district throughout the kingdom there should be a building or barrack expressly appropriated for the purpose. In the year ending 3rd March, 1858, 36,874 recruits were raised in the United Kingdom, the average number raised in ordinary years being about 12,000. In 1857-58 the recruits were raised in the following districts:—York, 4,253; Liverpool, 7,921; Bristol, 5,207; London, 9,852; North Britain, 2,860; Belfast, 2,285; Dublin, 2,489; and Cork, 2,007.

NO. CXVI.—SLAVE TRADE.

Class A.—Correspondence with the British Commissioners at Sierra Leone, Havannah, the Cape of Good Hope, and Loanda, and Reports from British Naval Officers relative to the Slave Trade, from April 1st, 1857, to March 1st, 1858.

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of her Majesty.*]

SIERRA LEONE.—On the 30th June, 1857, her Majesty's acting judge, Mr. Skelton, communicated to the Earl of Shelburne that no case had come

before the British and Netherlands, British and Spanish, British and Argentine, British and Uruguayan, British and Bolivian, British and Chilian, nor the British and Equatorial mixed courts of justice established in Sierra Leone for the prevention of the illicit traffic in slaves during the half-year ending 30th June, 1857. In the following half-year, however, several vessels had been captured: first was the *Adam Gray*, a brigantine. The vessel was American, and she had completed every stage of the transaction, excepting the final one of shipping her slaves; she had cleared out from New Orleans in safety, and was fully equipped for the slave trade with legal American papers. On the 24th July, the *Jupiter* was captured with seventy slaves on board. The vessel belonged to a Spaniard, who had purchased her at New Orleans. Again, on 1st August, the schooner *Abbot Devereux* was captured with 221 slaves on board, who had been shipped at Whydah, in the Bight of Benin. Some of the liberated Africans from Sierra Leone, who went to settle themselves at Whydah and its neighbourhood, were actively engaged in buying and selling slaves to the Portuguese and Spaniards. On the 5th August, a schooner, name unknown, was seized by her Majesty's steam vessel *Myrmidon*, and, on the 24th, the *Eliza Jane*, of New York, was detained and condemned. The *Eliza Jane* left New York in June on an ostensible voyage to some port in the Island of Cuba, under the command of two masters—an American and a Spaniard. After being at sea for a week, the Spanish captain called up the rest of the crew, excepting the Spaniards, who were in the secret of the expedition, and informed them that the brigantine was engaged on a slaving voyage, and going to Cabinda for a cargo, of whom 600 to 800 were to have been shipped to supply the Cuban market, where the owner of the vessel resided. During the voyage the crew were employed in laying the slave deck, setting up casks from the shooks, melting the ice with which the casks were filled, and making every preparation for the intended human cargo, which was fortunately frustrated by her timely capture and detention. The schooner *Antonio* was captured. She had a slave deck laid fore and aft, a very large number of water casks, fifty sets of slave irons, and large iron boilers sufficient to cook for 200 persons; and the Spanish barque *Conchita* was condemned as a lawful prize by the Mixed Commission Court at Sierra Leone for being equipped for the slave trade. Altogether, seventeen vessels had been captured and condemned by the Vice-Admiralty Court at Sierra Leone on suspicion of being engaged in the slave trade, and 983 slaves captured, from July 1st to December 31st, 1857.

HAVANA.—Her Majesty's Commissioners in Havana informed the Earl of Clarendon that the traffic in slaves was greatly on the increase. He stated that fifteen vessels had been despatched from New Orleans alone within the preceding two months to the coasts of Africa, some of them of large tonnage. Orders had been issued by General Concha for the repression of the slave trade, but the general opinion was that this would increase the amount of hush money, and so render the operations of the slave trade more costly, but

that the operations of the slave traders would not be less frequent nor less secure in their results than formerly. During the year 1857, 7,857 slaves have been landed in Cuba, and 2,704 of them had been taken. But as one-third more, or 2,609, was usually added to this number, as the probable number landed without the knowledge of the Commissioners, the number laid down was 10,436.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.—During 1856, no exportation of slaves, properly so called, had taken place from the Cape. But the exportation of negroes, under the denomination of colonists and free labourers, to the French settlements about Madagascar, had been carried on to a very great extent. The exportation of these free labourers was not only detrimental to the agriculture and legal commerce of the places from which it was carried on, by diminishing the amount of labour available for developing the resources of the country, but tended also to continue the evils attendant upon the slave trade, the individuals exported being, up to the moment of their emancipation (which just precedes their embarkation), of the same class as those provided for the cargoes of slave vessels. The Portuguese authorities on the coast seem quite powerless to carry out the measures ordered by the Government at Lisbon for the suppression of the slave trade. The decrees of 1853 for opening the ports in the Mozambique; of 1854, for the registration and prospective emancipation of slaves in the Portuguese possessions; and of 1855, against the exportation of free labourers, remained alike unexecuted. The exportation of negroes as free labourers was also carried on from Madagascar for the French settlements. On the 29th July, the barque *Minnetonka*, sailing as an American, belonging to New York, called off Natal, and she had 1,200 slaves on board.

LOANDA.—The river Congo was yet the strongest hold of the slave traders on that part of the coast, and several successful attempts had been made to prosecute the slave trade. The whole, or nearly the whole, was for the supply of the Island of Cuba, and was pursued under the American flag. It did not appear that any slaves had been shipped south of the equator for the ports of Brazil, but any relaxation, either in the energetic measures adopted by her Majesty's Government to put down the slave trade with that country or on the part of the Brazilian Government in opposing it, which might afford the remotest prospect of the reopening of that traffic, would be eagerly accepted by the parties who still cling to the hope of again embarking in their inhuman speculations. Several instances came to the knowledge of the Commissioner in which the flag of the United States had lately availed to protect the slave trade on that coast, and it was useless to attempt finally to extinguish this trade so long as American vessels were ready to assist the slave dealer in his various schemes to elude punishment. Nothing could afford so certain a security against the revival of the slave trade as the substitution of lawful commerce, the immediate and beneficial influence of which operating in declared hostility to that trade, has, whenever it has been firmly established, turned the hands of the natives to profitable labour, and been

the means of correcting many of the crimes and evils created by the traffic in slaves. Hence, the necessity of increasing and developing regular trade in the river Congo. On the 1st October, her Majesty's Acting Commissioner informed the Earl of Clarendon that an agent of the house of Messrs. Regis, Brothers, of Marseilles, was actively employed in the river Congo in purchasing slaves to be afterwards embarked as emigrants to the French colonies, and that a French steamer and barque had arrived in that river to transport them to their destination. A contract was entered into with parties in Martinique for the supply of a certain number of negroes from that coast, and on condition that it should be a *bonâ fide* engagement of free labourers, the French Government had assented to it. The Africans thus carried off from their native country to the French colonies, whatever may be the guarantees given them for their future rights and liberty, were, nevertheless, bought like any other article of merchandize from those who continue to traffic in human flesh, the slave dealers on the coast. The Commodore of the French naval forces did not deny the truth of the report that the negroes were, in the first instance, purchased as slaves, but dwelt much on the circumstance of their freedom being given them before they are embarked. The Governor-General had taken steps to prevent, if possible, the sale of slaves by reinforcing the crews of the Portuguese vessels of war at his disposal, and sending them to the river Congo to supervise the shipping of these blacks, and to prevent, if possible, any of them from being taken off as slaves. On the 24th October, her Majesty's Commissioners informed the Earl of Clarendon that her Majesty's steamer *Vesuvius* fell in with three Cabinda launches, two of which were captured, and the third ran on shore. The slaves, as well as the Cabinda men in the latter, were unhappily drowned; but in the two launches seized, there were found 102 slaves secured in the most inhuman manner, by being tied in pairs by the neck to the bottom of the boats. The slave dealers appear to have established themselves in force in the river Congo. In February, 1858, the Commissioners of Loanda reported on the actual state of the slave trade on that part of the coast for 1857, and stated, that during that year sixteen vessels had been captured or destroyed for being engaged in the slave trade, thirteen by the British, two by the Portuguese, and one by the American squadron. With respect to the purchase of slaves by French agents, the Commissioners reported that already the legitimate commerce of the river Congo had suffered considerably by the speculations of the slave dealers, and, instead of extracting oil from the cocoa-nuts, they are sold by the natives as food for their slaves. The exports of Loanda in 1857 amounted to 239,781*l.*, principally in beeswax, orchella, ivory, palm oil, gum, copal, and ground nut oil.

No. CXVII.—SLAVE TRADE.

Correspondence with British Ministers and Agents in Foreign Countries, and with Foreign Ministers in England, relating to the Slave Trade, from April 1st, 1857, to March 31st, 1858.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

AFRICA.—On the 9th of March, 1857, Consul Campbell, from Lagos, Bight of Benin, communicated a report that the King of Dahomey intended to make another attack on the town of Abbeokuta. With reference to an article in the *Times*, that the opening up of Africa may not necessarily cause the extinction of the slave trade; but that, on the contrary, the extended cultivation of cotton may lead to the use of slave labour, Consul Campbell stated that, whatever may be the consequence in this direction, there was an immeasurable distance and a wide difference in effect and influence between the compulsory labour of the African slave in a foreign country, the property of the white man, and forced labour in the country of his birth, and the property of his own countrymen. An African sold as a slave, and carried beyond sea, finds himself in a foreign country, estranged from his home, his family, and every natural tie, with scarcely even the sympathy of his fellow-slave, who may be from some part of Africa distant from his own former home; he is the property of a white man, who looks upon him as worth so much money, and whose sole interest is to exact daily all the labour possible out of him under the terror of a whip, wielded, probably, by the brawny arm of a fellow-African; all hope of regaining his freedom and his country are for ever lost, and he becomes an abject machine, a mere animal in human form.

Very different is the fate of the African who becomes a slave to one of his own countrymen and in the land of his birth: he never loses the hope of being one day restored to his home and country, either through the instrumentality of his friends and family redeeming him, or, in utter despair of that, and under harsh treatment, of trusting to his limbs and his ingenuity to again regaining his liberty and home. Should his master be, like himself, a heathen, there is probably no intellectual difference between them, and none assumed; his master and himself work in the same field, frequently they eat out of the same bowl, and the slave is regarded as a member of the family; his state of subjection not being onerous, he gets reconciled to it, particularly if, as is the common custom of the heathen slave proprietor, his master purchases for him a female slave as his wife and companion.

Should the unhappy captive be sold to a Mahomedan master, and he be kept for domestic use or for agricultural purposes, the Mahomedan, ignorant probably as his heathen slave, yet assumes a decided intellectual superiority over him; the little he has learnt of the dogmas of the Prophet leads him to regard his slave as no better than a quadruped; and the unfortunate slave's position is indeed a hard one. Still he is in Africa, and not separated from

it by, to him, an impassable ocean, and there is a limit to the cruel and oppressive treatment of his master.

The great drawback experienced in the cotton cultivation has been the want of good machines for separating the cotton from the seed. Those hitherto used are the description called the saw-gin; but as they deteriorate the cotton a halfpenny and more the pound, in consequence of the tearing of the fibre, another description, called the roller-gin, was sent out; but the machine being unadapted for the cotton cultivated in this part of Africa, not clearing five pounds of cotton per day, while the saw-gin cleared upwards of thirty pounds, the natives refused them.

In answer to a statement made by the West India merchants to Lord Palmerston, that there is a superabundant population in Africa having little or no means of employment, and, therefore, available for emigration to the West Indies, Consul Campbell said:—

“For three centuries Africa has been undergoing a forcible depopulation to supply agricultural labour to the western hemisphere. To obtain, during this long period, the millions of Africans required by, and supplied to, the West Indies, and to America, North and South, millions more have been sacrificed; and that portion of Africa which, during the last century in particular, underwent this enormous and forcible drain of its population, is now very thinly peopled indeed. In all those countries comprised as Senegambia, that is, from the latitude of the Senegal and bordering on the Great Desert, and extending as far east as the meridian of Sego in Bambara, to the latitude of Cape Mount, the populations are very thin, and towns containing populations exceeding 1,000 are rare.

“The countries of the Fantees, Ashantee, and Dahomey, and the several countries interior of these, including the Houssa country (which must have been originally a very populous country, for people of that nation are to be met with wherever slavery now exists, or formerly did exist), must have undergone a severe drain of their populations during the eighteenth century. The countries of Yoruba, of Nuffee, Bornou, and the numerous petty States situate between the river Chadda and the Niger, together with Iboo, and other countries bordering on the Lower Niger, have been drained of their populations during the present century to meet the wants of the slave trade; the aggressive wars of the fanatical Felatahs having been the means of furnishing the slave marts on the coast, situated between Cape St. Paul's and the river Cameroons, for the later supply of the Brazils and the Spanish West India possessions.

“There is, therefore, no free population in Africa that can or will emigrate to the West Indies.”

So with regard to the number of Kroomen available for free labour. This useful race of Africans have no interior territory; they inhabit numerous small towns and villages along some eighty to a hundred miles of sea-coast. When they have no work, they fish. They are generally well employed, and there is no surplus population of Kroomen available for emigration to the West Indies.

Consul Hutchinson, from Fernando Po, Bight of Biafra, communicated

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that a French transport ship named the *Phoenix*, Captain Chevalier, had arrived, with 300 Kroomen confined in the lower hold, who had left their country under the impression that they were to be brought to Gaboon River for one year's service. Four of the number had died. The men were constantly watched by soldiers with loaded muskets and fixed bayonets. The vessel was under the protection of the French government, and the captain professed to carry these Kroomen to Guadaloupe, Martinique, and Cayenne, as voluntary emigrants who had agreed to serve the French government for a period of six years. The following were the conditions for emigration, issued by the commander of the *Phoenix*:—

"*Emigration for French Guinea.*—With his Excellency Governor ——'s sanction.—M. Chevalier, commander of the French ship ——, now lying in this harbour, begs to inform the inhabitants of —— and the neighbourhood, that he offers to emigrants of the two sexes, who may be willing to agree with him to go to French Guinea, the following advantages:— 1. Three French dollars (11s. 7½d.) per month, as wages. 2. Board and lodging during the whole time of their engagement. 3. Each emigrant will have, besides lodging for himself and family (if he has any), a small garden, or piece of ground, which he can cultivate, or breed cattle on for his own benefit. 4. Each emigrant will be provided with clothes during the whole time of his agreement, and with all necessary tools for the work he may be called upon to do, at the employer's expense. 5. In case of sickness the emigrant will be supplied with medicines and medical attendance free of expense. 6. Captain Chevalier will give to each emigrant, at the time of shipping, a present, of the value of seven French dollars, in clothes or goods. 7. The term of the engagement will be six years from the date the emigrants arrive at Guinea. 8. At the end of the six years the emigrant will either be returned home by the French Government, free of expense, or make another engagement, at his option. 9. No emigrant of either sex will be admitted unless under forty years of age. 10. Female emigrants having young children can take them with themselves; but children under ten years of age will be entitled to their board and passage only, on board as well as at Guinea. 11. Children fourteen years old will have the same advantage as adults. 12. The registering of the emigrants will take place before the officer appointed by the French Government and in charge of the emigration. Persons agreeing to the above-mentioned conditions can, from to-day up to the ——, get all further information by applying at the office of —— of this city.

"(Signed) C. CHEVALIER."

BRAZIL.—Consul Cowper, of Pernambuco, communicated to the Earl of Clarendon, on the 30th of April, that a project of law had been laid before the Provincial Legislative Assembly, having for its object the introduction of Africans as colonists, and basing upon this preliminary step the gradual emancipation of the slaves now existing in the empire; the Government giving to each proprietor two African colonists for each slave emancipated, and the slaves remaining on the estate for the term of ten years. Mr. Cowper suggested several insuperable objections to the project. In the first place, ten years appear to be an unreasonable length of forced service

for the Africans imported as free men. Secondly, no provision being made for remunerating their services, their situation would be identical with that of the slaves that were emancipated. Thirdly, under the best regulated and most extensive system of immigration, no more than 50,000 Africans could be reasonably expected to be imported in any one year, say 500,000 in ten years. These would emancipate 250,000 slaves, leaving 750,000 slaves still in bondage in the empire. Then, the frauds which doubtless would be practised by the proprietors, and the stimulus given to the African chiefs once more to obtain captives by internal wars, must render the project, in its present form, altogether unacceptable to the friends of freedom. Upon communication of such a project, the Earl of Clarendon did not hesitate to say that, if carried into effect, it would only be a revival of the slave trade under another form, and that it was one which her Majesty's Government would on every account feel themselves bound to discountenance. In the half-year ended 30th of June, 1857, the prices of slaves at Pernambuco were as follow:—African and Creole males, 105*l*. to 117*l*.; Creole males, with trades, 175*l*. to 210*l*.; females, 117*l*. to 140*l*.; infants from birth to five years, 17*l*. 10*s*. to 58*l*.; children from five to fourteen years, 58*l*. to 105*l*. In the half-year ended 31st of December, the prices were somewhat higher.

Consul Vereker, of Rio Grande do Sul, sent the following report upon that province:—

“The province of Rio Grande do Sul possesses natural advantages, equalled by but few parts of the world; these are calculated to attract the emigrant from Europe. The climate is suited to the growth of the grains of Europe, though it is probable other productions may yield a more profitable return. The district is large and fertile, capable, probably, of maintaining a population of 6,000,000, whereas the actual population is reputed not to exceed 200,000. The water communications are numerous, for, besides the river Uruguay, which disembogues in the river Plate, and forms the interior boundary of the province, and the tributaries of the same river, there are the two great lakes, Patos and Mirim, extending about 300 miles, and supplied by a number of rivers, percolating to almost every part of the interior, these being either navigable for large distances, or easily rendered so. The extensive virgin forests are in themselves, as it were, a mine of wealth: the *matté* tree, the leaves of which form a valuable article of commerce, grows spontaneously in abundance; whilst tobacco, indigo, the vine, the olive, maize, cotton of a superior quality, and many other vegetable productions, in which a large and lucrative commerce might be established, can with facility be cultivated. Besides the natural advantages, the province of Rio Grande do Sul is under a constitutional government, and the security to life and property is believed to be greater therein than in any of the South American Republics, excepting, perhaps, Chile; on the other hand, the climate is more suited to Europeans than that of the northern provinces of Brazil. Under these circumstances, it might have been presumed that any attempts to establish European emigrants in this territory would have been eminently successful; but the facts speak the contrary, as the majority of the experiments made have proved utter

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failures. In searching for the reasons of this lamentable anomaly, they will, perhaps, be found in a combination of the following principal causes:—

“1. Existence of slavery. 2. Prevalence of the Portuguese language. 3. Character of the inhabitants. 4. Errors in the system of colonization.”

Having described the various attempts made at colonization, and shown how, of all the colonies attempted, only one, that of São Leopoldo, could be considered as firmly established, the report concludes with the following observations with respect to immigration:—

“The persons most likely to succeed are young unmarried men and women of the lower class, who will be able to turn to such employment as may be offered; also, artificers, engineers, and tradesmen, specially masons and carpenters; enterprising farmers have also opportunities for advancement: but the immigrant in this province requires to possess unusual perseverance, to act with considerable caution, and, above all, to be industrious; he should also be able to pay his passage and have funds sufficient to support him until he becomes firmly established. Persons of the middle class, and clerks, household servants, married persons with young families, &c. &c., are unsuited to the requirements of this district, and, if they should come, will probably be subjected to many difficulties and disappointments. Skill, capital, and perseverance, will, however, in this, as in most new countries, meet with its reward.

“In conclusion, it is to be remarked that advancing enlightenment and education, the increasing number of foreign residents, the diminution of slavery, and the extension of commercial and other relations with Europe, all which causes are, even at present, having a perceptible influence, will in time remove many of the objections which now deter the European emigrant from directing his views and linking his destinies to this immense and fertile country. Nature has surely been most bounteous to the province of Rio Grande do Sul: it remains for man to do his part, and the Brazilian should feel that it is not alone his duty, but his interest, to open as much as possible to the world the natural riches over which he happens to have a controlling power, to promote the arrival, settlement, and prosperity of foreigners in his locality, to imitate them when advisable, and, instead of looking upon them with jealousy, to use the advantages which residence and experience give him to surpass them, and, above all, not to consider labour in those arts and occupations which have secured for other nations the greatest advancement and power and prosperity, as beneath the dignity of a Brazilian and disgraceful to a free man. The Brazilian should remember that in his endeavours to procure immigrants he has to compete with such nations as the British, the French, and the inhabitants of the United States; and that unless he can offer the emigrant from Europe greater advantages than are presented by Australia, the United States, Canada, Algiers, the Cape of Good Hope, and the River Plate States, he cannot expect that the current of emigration will turn towards Brazil.”

Consul Westwood, from Rio Janeiro, communicated on the 28th January, 1858, that no slaves were landed into that province from the coast of Africa during the year 1857, and that stringent measures continued to be adopted by the Imperial Government, for the purpose of preventing any reappearance of the traffic. During 1857 the value of exports of staple productions

from Rio de Janeiro, the result of slave labour, was as follows:—Coffee, 2,088,316 bags, value, including shipping charges and duties, 6,859,713*l.*; sugar, 7,677 cases, value 210,375*l.*; rosewood, 17,808 planks, 58,738*l.*; other articles, such as horns, ipecacuanha, rice, rum, &c., 300,000*l.*: total, 7,428,826*l.*

FRANCE.—On the 28th April, 1857, the Earl of Clarendon desired Lord Cowley to communicate to his Excellency Count Walewski the regret of her Majesty's Government in learning that the French Government had entered into a contract with Mr. P. J. Maës, of Nantes, for the introduction into Martinique of 1,200 African labourers, inasmuch as it was impossible to obtain cargoes of emigrants from the West Coast of Africa, without directly or indirectly purchasing them from the slave-owner, which would have the effect of affording a positive encouragement to the slave trade. The same representations were made in July, 1857, her Majesty's Government regretting that this traffic should be sanctioned by the French authorities, as it must not only have a detrimental effect on the legitimate commerce of the place from whence the slaves are exported, but also encourage the internal warfare by which the slave markets are supplied. The Earl of Clarendon requested Earl Cowley to ascertain from Count Walewski whether the French Government would be willing to renew the convention for the suppression of the slave trade, which was concluded between this country and France on the 26th of May, 1845. The tenth article of that convention fixed its duration at ten years, and provided that if at the end of the tenth year the previous conventions which had been concluded between this country and France for the suppression of the slave trade should not have been put again in force, they should be considered as definitely abrogated. No communication passed between the two Governments on this subject, and, consequently, the slave trade treaties between the two countries lapsed on the expiration of the convention of 1845. Count Walewski's answer was, however, far from satisfactory. He stated that the whole question had already undergone a thorough examination in the council of ministers; that the property of the Island of Réunion depended on her being able to procure negro labour; and that, although the Imperial Government were firm in their determination to procure negroes from the coasts of Africa, they would take care that it should be done without giving encouragement to the slave trade. He would not admit that the practice against which her Majesty's Government remonstrated was a virtual encouragement of that trade; for he affirmed that all the accounts from the places where negroes were procured showed that the local chiefs were continually at war with one another, and that the negroes would be slaughtered, if it was not known that the French Government were ready to purchase their freedom. With regard to the renewal of the treaty for the suppression of the slave trade, his Excellency replied that he should be glad to do so, but that there would be a great difficulty about it, as there was such difference of opinion between the two Governments

respecting the proceedings of the Imperial Government for the introduction of free labourers into the West India possessions.

On the 19th October, the Earl of Clarendon communicated to Earl Cowley the despatches received from her Majesty's consul at Lagos, reporting the purchase by the agent of Messrs. Regis, of Marseilles, of 1,200 slaves at Whyndah, and their shipment as free emigrants on board a French screw steamer. Lord Clarendon desired Earl Cowley to remind the French Government of the solemn engagements entered into by France to co-operate with Great Britain for the total suppression of the slave trade, and to appeal to the deliberate judgment of Count Walewski to say whether it was possible to reconcile transactions such as those in question, and so flagrant in their nature, with those solemn and repeated engagements. It may be said that the negroes in question are free emigrants, and that slavery being abolished in the French dominions, these negroes would be free when they arrived in the French West Indies; but in reality these emigrants were slaves bought at so much per head, and brought by violence of every kind to the coast to be sold to the French purchaser; and it was impossible to look upon men, who are torn from their homes, their kindred, and their country, and doomed to labour in a foreign land, as free labourers in the just sense of that term. If, however, it was admitted that the condition and treatment of these victims of violence was to be good, after their arrival in the French West Indies, the crimes of violence committed, and the misery suffered in Africa, caused by the means resorted to for the purpose of providing these slaves, would remain the same; and her Majesty's Government were persuaded that when the French Government seriously reflected upon the nature of these arrangements, which her Majesty's Government could not help thinking have been unguardedly sanctioned, and upon the extensive evils which these arrangements must necessarily create, and when they observed the entire incompatibility of these proceedings with the solemn and long-standing engagements of France, they would not hesitate in putting an immediate stop to so lamentable a state of things.

Her Majesty's Government were anxious about this matter, not only from the deep interest which the British Government has, for more than half a century, taken in the suppression of the slave trade, but because they well knew the painful effect which would be produced upon the minds of the British nation if it were believed that the French Government had on a sudden changed its policy in regard to the slave trade, and instead of co-operating with Great Britain to prevent other nations from continuing to commit this abominable crime, had lent themselves to the practical encouragement of it, notwithstanding their denouncement of that traffic in 1815, in concurrence with the other powers. The sweeping nature of this denunciation was fully exemplified by the words of the declaration of the 8th of February, 1815, of which the following are extracts:—

“Que les plénipotentiaires rassemblés dans ce Congrès ne sauraient mieux
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honorer leur mission, remplir leur devoir, et manifester les principes qui guident leurs augustes Souverains, qu'en travaillant à réaliser cet engagement et en proclamant au nom de leurs Souverains le vœu de mettre un terme à un fléau qui a si longtemps désolé l'Afrique, dégradé l'Europe, et affligé l'humanité," &c., &c. ; and,

"Par conséquent," &c., &c., "que l'engagement réciproque contracté par la présente déclaration entre les Souverains qui y ont pris part ne sera considéré comme rempli qu'au moment où un succès complet aura couronné leurs efforts réunis."

Her Majesty's Government felt sure that France could not now be less alive to the calls of humanity than in 1815, when she cordially adopted this declaration.

Earl Cowley sent a memorandum to Count Walewski substantially the same as the note of the Earl of Clarendon, and the following was the answer given :—

"The French Government have no intention whatever of giving encouragement to the slave trade. Although the slave trade treaty with Great Britain has expired, they still consider themselves bound by its spirit, and have as much at heart the extinction of the trade, as when the Declaration of 1815 was signed.

"The French Government, on the other hand, cannot admit that the means which they have taken for procuring negroes in the Island of Réunion, and the French Antilles, constitute a violation of the engagements which they have contracted. The question has been submitted to the best French jurists, and their opinion coincides with that of the Government. The French Government, moreover, maintain that the purchase of the negroes for the purpose of setting them free is an act of humanity ; for the negroes thus set free would be otherwise kept for the clandestine slave trade still carried on, and submitted to all the horrors which that trade entails.

"But, while insisting that the purchase of negroes for the purpose of setting them free cannot be qualified as a trade in slaves, the French Government are most anxious that the proceedings which they have sanctioned should not give rise to any abuse, and they have taken into their serious consideration the friendly communications and observations of her Majesty's Government, with a view of remedying the inconveniences to which the system they have adopted may give rise.

"Labour can only be carried on in the Isle of Réunion and in the French Antilles, by negroes procured from Africa, or by coolies. It is obvious, therefore, that if the latter can be procured, the former will not be necessary."

On the 5th of December the Earl of Clarendon transmitted to Earl Cowley a memorandum showing the nature and tendency of the system pursued by France for procuring negro labourers from Africa. In answer to this memorandum the French minister stated that, with a view to elicit the truth, the Emperor issued a commission to examine the question whether the engagement of free labourers encouraged the slave trade or not ; but this commission, while stating all that was to be said for and against the

plan pursued by the French Government, gave on the whole an opinion favourable to its continuation. The Dutch Government had also pronounced itself in favour of the French proceedings, and had declared that in their judgment the slave trade could only be put an end to by adopting a system of free labour. After some discussion Count Walewski said that the two Governments were at issue on the question, but if what Earl Cowley stated could be satisfactorily proved, the scheme to which her Majesty's Government objected would be abandoned.

PORTUGAL.—The efforts of the British minister in Portugal have been successfully directed to securing the full rights of liberty for the negroes and men of colour who may return from Portugal to Brazil, and also with a view to induce the Portuguese Government to give instruction to the authorities on the East Coast of Africa not to allow the exportation of negroes from Mozambique to the French settlements. In March 1858, a project of law was framed enacting that the condition of slavery would be entirely abolished throughout the Portuguese monarchy without any exception on the day which completes twenty years, to be counted from that of the publication of the law in the official journal of the Government, and providing that those persons who, on the day thus specified for the total abolition of slavery may still possess slaves, shall be compensated for the value of the same in the manner pointed out by a special law. The Viscount de Ja da Bandeira, the Minister of Marine and Colonies, in his report enumerated as follows the different measures that were adopted during the last twenty-two years by the Portuguese Government, not only to ameliorate the condition of the slaves in the Portuguese transmarine possessions, but likewise to bring about the ultimate abolition of slavery.

In 1836, the decree of the 10th of December was published, which prohibits the exportation of slaves, by sea or over land, and the importation of slaves by sea in the Portuguese dominions. On the 3rd of July, 1842, the treaty with Great Britain was concluded, for the suppression of the slave trade. In 1854, there was promulgated the decree of the 14th December, which, among other provisions, established the registration of slaves; enacted that all slaves imported by land into the said dominions subsequently to the publication of the said decree, should be considered as liberated negroes; provided them with means for obtaining their manumission; designated a fund for their liberation by the Boards of Guardians; and granted liberty to all Slaves belonging to the state. In 1855, the Portaria of the 10th of March was issued, which abolished the state of slavery at the Island of St. Vincent, Cape de Verdes; and in 1856, the law of the 30th June was sanctioned, which gave liberty to the slaves belonging to the Municipal Chambers and to charitable institutions; also that of the 5th of July, which extinguished slavery in the district of Ambriz; also those of the 24th and 25th of same month, the first considering as free the children of female slaves born after its publication; the second extending to slaves belonging to the churches, the grant of liberty made to those of the State by the

above-mentioned decree of the 14th December, 1854; also that of 18th of August, likewise considering as free the slaves on board of Portuguese vessels entering into any port or other anchorage in the territories forming the States of India, and in the city of Macao and its dependencies, as well as those slaves belonging to foreigners, and landing on the above-mentioned Portuguese territories; and finally, the decree of the 23rd December, which abolished slavery in Macao. The total of all these measures cannot fail to produce the result of a constant and considerable decrease in the number of slaves in the transmarine provinces, until such time as slavery shall become completely extinct, by virtue of the above-mentioned law of 24th July, 1856, which declares the children of female slaves to be born free. There is, therefore, foundation for calculating, that at the expiration of the term of twenty years, the number of slaves existing in the monarchy will be so far reduced that the compensation which will have to be paid to the lawful owners of such as then exist, in order that all without exception may receive their liberty, may be stated at a moderate sum.

SPAIN.—The British Government repeatedly represented to the Spanish Government that the slave trade continued to be extensively carried on in Cuba, and the measures of repression employed by the Spanish Government were not only entirely inadequate for the purpose, but they had in some cases been turned to account by the slave-traders. The Spanish government, however, denied the fact that the slave trade was increasing. They contended that they did all they could to obtain the complete extinction of the slave trade, and that the Captain-General of Cuba left no means untried for the purpose. Since 1847, as many as 17,139 Chinese arrived as free labourers in Havana, and all of them found immediate employment. The opinion of the planters and others who availed themselves of those labourers' services continued to be favourable. They are more intelligent, although not so robust and athletic as the negro; and they require a treatment which is combined with justice and kindness, but by no means relaxed in its character, to make them most valuable servants, and in a great measure supersede the slave labour of the island.

TRIPOLI.—Consul-General Herman transmitted to the Earl of Clarendon a memorandum on the slave trade, showing the new direction which the traffic has taken since the promulgation of the imperial decree of February, 1856, prohibiting the exportation of slaves from the Regency. The trade has now been diverted from the old channels into new ones. The great caravans from Bornou, the Soudan, and other parts of Nigritia, as far as the district of Noufi on the Niger, which formerly found their way, *viâ* Moorzouk and Ghadames, to Tripoli and Tunis; and again from Moorzouk, by the oasis of Angela, to Bengazi and Upper Egypt, now move concentrically upon Ghat, from that point upon Insalah in Tuat, and, finally, from thence enter the Algerine territory by Mittele or Wurglah. Ghat has, in fact, become the entrepôt of the commerce of the interior, and between that place and the Algerine southern frontier, a most extensive

trade was in full operation, both in slaves and the various industrial and agricultural productions of Central Africa, upon which for the period of fifteen years, with the object of attracting the whole commerce of the interior to her frontier, France has remitted all duties. The policy of France was obvious; first, to attract to her frontier all the commerce of the interior, by opening markets for a commodity that constitutes more than two-thirds of the value of all the caravan trade; and for which, excepting in Morocco, no other vent can now be found. Secondly, by a large infusion of the negro element into the spare population of Algeria, she will in a few years acquire a race of colonists far better suited to the rude and unremitting labours of agriculture than the indolent Arab or the romantic Bedouin.

TURKEY.—On the 9th of March, 1857, Lord Stratford de Redcliffe transmitted the following copy of the slave trade firmans from Edhem Pasha, which were transmitted to the Pashas of Egypt, Tripoli, Bagdad, &c., as well as of a Vizireal letter to the Governor-General of Egypt, Tripoli, and Bagdad:—

Firman to the Pasha of Egypt.—Whereas, the beneficial effects of the measures adopted and proclaimed by my Government respecting the prohibition of negro slave trade have not become apparent in some parts of my imperial dominions, that trade being still in force; and, whereas, a great number of these slaves, during their journey from their own country to the coast, perish from the fatigues and hardship they are exposed to in the deserts; whilst the remainder, owing to their passage from warm to cold countries, become subject to pulmonary and other diseases, by which means most of them are cut off from the enjoyment of life at an early age: this distressing state of things has exceeded the limits of sufferance to an extent which humanity cannot sanction, and the prohibition of this trade, by means of an universal and continuous prevention, has become necessary.

After the arrival of my imperial firman, no negro slaves shall be allowed to leave the province of Western Tripoli, which is the Mediterranean outlet, for any place whatever.

This matter shall be immediately announced to the slave-dealers in the province as well as to such of them as may be dispersed in the interior of Africa. But a period of delay of eight weeks shall be fixed for those of the latter who are in distant places.

Should, however, any negro slaves arrive after this period, permission shall not be given for their sale, even within the province; but the slave-dealers who shall have brought them shall be compelled to liberate them.

But as sending the liberated slaves back to their country would be, in fact, to expose their lives to danger a second time, they shall be placed in suitable situations and families, and enabled to gain their living.

A period of six weeks being sufficient for the promulgation of this prohibition in the Mediterranean, any ship arriving at any port or scala after that period with slaves on board, such ship being a merchantman, subject to my Government, it shall be confiscated, its captain shall be imprisoned, and the occurrence shall be reported to Constantinople. The slaves come by it shall be forcibly liberated by their owners, they being, as above, put in suitable situations, and enabled to gain their living.

The commanders of my ships of war cruising in the Mediterranean shall

watch over and survey this matter without intermission; and, after the expiration of the above period, they shall receive positive instructions to seize and take possession of any ship they may meet carrying negro slaves, and send it to Constantinople.

Although it is natural that this liberation of slaves should only obtain in the case of those to be in future imported anywhere by slave-dealers, and that those who have previously become private property should remain in their original condition until it may please their master to dispose otherwise; yet, as their purchase and sale by auction will not be permitted, it will be necessary to manage (the transaction) in some suitable manner, *i. e.* in a way consonant with generosity. This matter, also, must be well and carefully explained to those whom it concerns.

This prohibition will be fully carried out in the province of Irak (Bagdad).

A period of three months' delay will be fixed for the Persian Gulf: after that, appropriate vessels from among my men-of-war, belonging to the arsenal of Basra, will be sent to cruize about, and will confiscate such ships as they may meet with negro slaves on board, and report the matter here.

My imperial orders to that effect will be sent to the Governors of Western Tripoli and Bagdad. The necessary orders will also be sent to the authorities of the islands and coasts of the Archipelago and Mediterranean.

Although this prohibition is at present in force in the country of Egypt, yet, as the present formal resolution is meant to signify an universal prohibition, when any negro slaves shall in future arrive there also, the above rules shall be fully carried out, both as regards themselves and their dealers.

My imperial order to that effect shall be issued separately.

These matters having been discussed and agreed upon in my Privy and Cabinet Councils, they have been submitted to me, and my permission asked. My imperial decree for their execution accordingly has been issued. My sovereign orders, in the same sense, have been proclaimed, and the official communications have been effected. Therefore, you who are my Vizier aforesaid, on the arrival of this my imperial firman, you will proclaim the matter in due form, and, in accordance with the judgment, intelligence, and zeal which characterizes you, you will take heed and exert yourself to prevent the departure of negro slaves, after the date of your proclamation, from any one of the places situated within your jurisdiction, for any other, and to ensure the entire enforcement of the above prohibition in the country of Egypt.

5 Gemazil, 1273.

Note.—Same to Pashas of Tripoli and Bagdad, with slight variation of words. All have received Vizireal letters couched in the same words. The others are the Pashas of Salonica, Scodra, Izmid, Aleppo, Candia, Rhodes, Sidon, Adana, Cyprus, Dardanelles, Jerusalem, Gallipoli, Rhodosto, Volo, Brussa, Cyzicus, Mytilene, Scio, Cos, Lemnos, Tenedos, Teke, and Kodaili.

Vizireal Letter to the Governor-General of Egypt, Tripoli, and Bagdad.—Your Highness is aware that the negro slave trade has been prohibited by his Imperial Majesty's commands, and that the necessary injunctions on this subject have been repeatedly sent to every part of the empire. In some places, nevertheless, the prohibition has been unattended with any effect, and it was, therefore, considered necessary to prohibit the traffic

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altogether. Owing, however, to well-known circumstances of delicacy respecting the Hedjaz, that sacred province will be excepted for a time from the prohibition; but stringent measures will be taken from the date of the receipt of the imperial firman, to prevent the passage outwards, in any direction whatsoever, of slaves coming to the coast of Tripoli West, which is the place of export of negro slaves in the Mediterranean: at the same time, this total prohibition will be notified at once to the troop of slave dealers in the interior of the province, and to those scattered in remote parts of Africa; but to the latter a period of eight weeks' delay will be granted. Should any negro slaves again arrive, after the expiration of this period, their sale shall not be lawful, even within the province itself: the slave dealers shall be compelled to emancipate them, and the slaves themselves will be put into a state of liberty.

As the sending back of the slaves to their own country would be exposing the lives of those unfortunates to fresh danger, it shall not be permitted. They shall be placed in suitable situations and houses, and enabled to gain their livelihood.

Although the confiscation of the slaves imported by slave dealers after the expiration of the above period of eight weeks is, in itself, a series of punishment, yet it will be necessary to give a progressive extension to the degrees of punishment. On the first repetition of the offence, they shall be imprisoned for one year; on the second, they shall be confined for two years, and an additional year will be given each time the offence is repeated.

Such are the dispositions contained in a firman sent to his Excellency the Pasha of Tripoli, in the west.

Although exertions are being made in Egypt to carry out this prohibition, the present official resolution is intended to signify a total prohibition, and should any black slaves come thitherwards, an imperial firman will be sent to your Highness in a separate form, in order that you may exactly carry out the whole of the above conditions, both as regards slaves and slave dealers.

All the functionaries of the Sublime Porte, in all the islands and coasts of the empire, will be instructed respecting the treatment to be practised towards negro slaves, the capture, for account of Government, of ships arriving with slaves on board after the expiration of the prescribed period, the imprisonment of their captains, and report to Government.

The captains of his Majesty's cruisers in the Archipelago and Mediterranean will receive instructions to devote their care and attention to this object, and to make a prize of such ships as they shall meet with negro slaves on board.

Another imperial firman has also been sent to the Governor of Bagdad, informing him of this prohibition, and assigning a period of three months for the Persian Gulf.

This rule of emancipation is only to affect such slaves as may in future be imported by slave dealers. The emancipation by their masters of such slaves as shall have become their property previously to this, shall naturally remain in its original condition until their pleasure. But as their purchase and sale by auction will not be lawful, the transaction must be managed in some suitable manner—that is, in a mode consistent with the attributes of generosity.

These subjects have been decided upon in Council, and the firman of his Imperial Majesty has been issued to this effect; and as its execution has been

forthwith commenced, your Excellency will also exert your noble offices for the proclamation of this decision in the country of Egypt, and for the procuring of the perpetual means for carrying out this necessary prohibition.

UNITED STATES.—On the 18th August, 1857, Lord Napier communicated that he had applied for a return of the United States vessels of war employed during 1856 and the first half of 1857, in the suppression of the African slave trade, and that he had learned that the force prescribed by treaty had not been maintained. The American minister, however, retorted that the British squadron had not the number of guns prescribed by the convention of 1842. The eighth article of that treaty stipulated that both countries should prepare, equip, and maintain in service on the coast of Africa, a sufficient and adequate squadron, of suitable number and description, to carry in all not less than eighty guns, to enforce separately and respectively the laws, rights, and obligations of each of the two countries for the suppression of the slave trade; the squadrons to be independent of each other. The British squadron on the coast of Africa on the 1st January, from 1843 to 1857, averaged 19·26 vessels, 148·8 guns; the United States squadron averaged 4·46 vessels, 77·06 guns. On the 16th September, Mr. Dallas sent a note to the Earl of Clarendon, complaining of a violation of sovereign right by the visit, search, and capture of the American barque *Panchita*, under suspicions of being engaged in the slave trade. The flag of the United States, he said, has a meaning which should not be hastily overlooked. Like that of Great Britain, or of any other civilized country—no matter how distant the sea or humble the lorchia on which it floats—it implies a pledge of a nation's power and honour to shelter what is beneath it from invasion or wrong. All flags are but hoisted emblems asserting the national presence and jurisdiction. Since the United States led the way by their federal legislation to the abolition and penal prescription of the African slave trade, they have manifested in every manner deemed compatible with their fundamental institutions, the fixed opinions of their people, and considerations of the highest moment, their utmost determination and sincerity in carrying out that policy of philanthropy and justice. But the United States, although they went far, stopped at the line which the reckless zeal of Commander Moresby overleaped. Though often persuaded, they have invariably declined to concede to any nation, upon any terms, for any object, a right irreconcilable with the perfect immunity of their mercantile marine from foreign interference. Without their previously obtained consent, no visit, or search, or seizure, of an American vessel can take place, except with defiance and insult to their flag. The convention of the 9th of August, 1842, signed at Washington by its negotiators, Mr. Webster and Lord Ashburton, arranged for a small squadron of the United States navy on the coast of Africa, in order, first, that their public force might co-operate with that of her Majesty in extinguishing the slave trade; and, secondly, that their merchant vessels, if suspected, or even flagrantly guilty,

should, nevertheless, be liable to visitation, or search, and seizure, by the officers and seamen of their own country only. Eagerly, even at great cost, as the suppression of the noxious traffic might be sought, it was still not an aim to which the United States would consent to sacrifice the more dearly valued exemption of their own citizens from coercion by strangers. But, using the words of one of the brightest and most authoritative ornaments of English judicature: "No one nation has a right to force its way to the liberation of Africa by trampling on the independence of other States, or to press forward to a great principle by breaking through other great principles that stand in the way. The right of visitation and search on the high seas does not exist in time of peace. If it belongs to one nation, it equally belongs to all, and would lead to gigantic mischief and universal war."

The Earl of Clarendon, in transmitting Mr. Dallas's note to Lord Napier, said, with reference to the immunity from visit which is asserted by the Government of the United States on behalf of American vessels, that her Majesty's Government conclude that by the term "visit," General Cass could not mean that any vessels, no matter to what nation belonging, which may choose to hoist an American flag, shall not be boarded for the purpose of ascertaining whether her papers bear out the national character assumed by her flag, as that would be at once to proclaim and to afford complete immunity to the slave dealers of every country in the world.

On the 24th December, 1857, Lord Napier communicated to the Government of the United States several incidents in illustration of the manner in which the flag of the United States is employed in the prosecution of the African slave trade. The coast of Africa continues to be infested by slavers, and the slavers endeavour to prosecute their commerce with impunity by the assumption of the flag of the United States. The vessels engaged in this branch of the slave trade, which alone possesses any vigour or extension, whether owned by American citizens, colonial Spaniards, or by foreign residents in the Union, whether issuing from the harbours of the United States or from those of Cuba, have now embraced the almost universal habit of hoisting the colours of the United States, for the purpose of sheltering themselves from the scrutiny of the British cruisers. This precaution does not protect the slaver from visit, but it exonerates him from search. When boarded, the master of the vessel claims the privilege of his flag, and frequently exhibits American papers, forged, or obtained on false pretences from the custom-house authorities of the port from which he has sailed. With these specious but fraudulent signs of nationality, he defies the British officer to raise the hatches, under which are securely hidden the proofs of meditated crime. In some cases, the master of the vessel does not affect to conceal his nefarious purpose; with the American flag overhead, and American papers in his hand, he avows the object of his voyage, and points to the instruments and appliances of the trade. Sometimes the perseverance of the British cruiser exhausts

the patience of the slaver, or surprises some flagrant act of deception; sometimes the suspected ship is relinquished, reaches the coast, takes her slaves on board, is met again and seized; too often the guilty vessel eludes the vigilance of the English squadron, and lands her cargo in Cuba, by the laxness or connivance of the Spanish authorities. There she is either destroyed or refitted for another venture. When the vessel is overtaken with negroes on board, or in such a state of preparation that no doubt can exist of her immediate intention, the American ensign and papers are made away with. The origin and ownership are then deduced from the nationality of the master, supercargo, and crew, from documentary evidence discovered on board, or from information elicited on trial. Lord Napier concluded his note by asking the United States Government to strengthen the squadron, in accordance with the treaty of 1842, and by stating that her Majesty's Government hope that the Government of the United States will enter upon an active, liberal, expansive execution of the mutual engagements, not because these engagements are binding, but because they are salutary and just.

On the 6th March, Lord Napier communicated to the Earl of Clarendon that a measure had been introduced into the Senate of Louisiana to sanction the importation of 5,000 negro apprentices. This proposal was not seriously entertained, and was laid upon the table; but a bill, authorizing the formation of a company for the introduction of 2,500 African labourers, bound to servitude for fifteen years, had passed the House of Representatives of that State. Public opinion was, however, decidedly against such a measure, and the Senate would be sure to set its face against it.

No. CXVIII.—SLAVE TRADE.

Returns showing the Number of Ships and of Officers and Men employed in the suppression of the Slave Trade, distinguishing the Stations, from 1854 to 1857 inclusive. (Lord Clarence Paget.) 21st July, 1858. (454.)

In 1854 there were 12 ships, 992 officers and men, on the west coast of Africa; 4 ships, 475 men, at the Cape of Good Hope; 11 ships, 1,650 men, in North America and West Indies; and 6 ships and 541 men, on the south-east coast of America. In 1857 there were 15 ships, 1,424 men, on the west coast of Africa; 3 ships, 610 men, at the Cape of Good Hope; 9 ships, 3,363 men, in North America and West Indies; and 6 ships, 1,335 men, on the south-east coast of America. In 1857 the number of deaths was 141, and the number of invalided 179. The total number of slaves for whom head money has been paid was, in 1854, 62; in 1855, none; in 1856, 19; and in 1857, 384.

No. CXIX.—NAVY.

Return of the estimated Sum saved in Wages by paying off Eight Line-of-Battle Ships in the Spring of 1857. (Sir Charles Napier.) 23rd March, 1858. (256.)

THE amount of wages saved by paying off her Majesty's ships *Cæsar*, *Duke of Wellington*, *Nile*, *James Watt*, *Cressy*, *Majestic*, *Colossus*, and *Exmouth*, deducting the half-pay, was 100,529*l*.

No. CXX.—SEA FENCIBLES.

Copy of the Authority under which Sea Fencibles were organized during the last War with France, and the Date of the Authority, their Number, Duties, and Remuneration. (Sir Charles Napier.) 10th May, 1858. (341.)

THE Order in Council was issued on the 14th March, 1798, giving power to enrol under the denomination of Sea Fencibles all such of the inhabitants of the towns and villages on the coast of Great Britain as should voluntarily offer themselves for the defence of the coast in the vicinity of such places, or within the limits of such districts as the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty might judge proper. In order that such men might be properly instructed in the use of cannon and pikes, and such other means as might be found necessary for giving effect to their services, officers of her Majesty's Navy, assisted by inferior officers, were appointed to take upon them the command of such men as might enrol themselves in the respective districts, and the following allowances were made for their services :—The remuneration was, to post-captains, an allowance of 30*s*. per diem, together with the sum of 5*s*. per diem for the hire of a clerk, for stationery, travelling, and all other expenses, such officers relinquishing their half-pay whilst so employed; to commanders, an allowance of one guinea per diem and a half-guinea per week for the expenses of an officer, such officers relinquishing their half-pay whilst so employed; to four of the volunteers in every 100 men so enrolled who may be appointed to act as sergeants, the sum of 1*s*. 6*d*. per diem while in exercise or service; and to all other volunteers so enrolled the sum of 1*s*. per diem while in exercise or service; and in case they should be required to leave their own coast upon the enemy's landing or attempting to make a landing on any other part, the pay and provisions of able seamen in Her Majesty's Navy until they should have returned to their own coast again. Under this Order in Council there were enrolled in the east coast of England, 17 captains superintending, 73 lieutenants, and 3,042 men; in the south coast of England, 10 captains superintending, 66 lieutenants, and 4,551 men; in the west coast of England, 11 captains superintending, 33 lieutenants, and 3,466 men; in Scotland, 2 captains superintending, 12 lieutenants, and 584 men; and in Ireland, 21 captains, 62 lieutenants, and 11,812 men; making a total of 61 captains, 245 lieutenants, and 23,455 men, at the date when the force was disbanded in February, 1810.

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No. XCIX.—QUEEN'S COLLEGES.

Report of Her Majesty's Commissioners appointed to inquire into the progress and condition of the Queen's Colleges at Belfast, Cork, and Galway.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]

THE commission was issued on the 6th February, 1857, directed to the Marquis of Kildare, Sir Thomas Nicholas Redington, Knt., Commander of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath, Bonamy Price, Esq., M.A., and James Gibson, Esq., barrister-at-law, and their report was dated 30th June, 1858.

Establishment of the Colleges.—The Queen's colleges were established in order to supply the want, which had long been felt in Ireland, of an improved academical education equally accessible to all classes of the community, without religious distinction. The Act of Parliament enabling her Majesty to endow the Queen's colleges, received the royal assent on the 31st July, 1845. A sum not exceeding 100,000*l.* was thereby placed at the disposal of her Majesty's Government, to purchase and provide sites, and the necessary buildings for one or more colleges, and for establishing and furnishing the same. An annual endowment chargeable on the Consolidated Fund was also created, not exceeding 7,000*l.* a-year for each college, or 21,000*l.* in the whole, which sum was to be applied for the payment of the salaries of the president, vice-president, and such professors in the faculties of arts, law, and physic as should, from time to time, be established by her Majesty, and also for the payment of the salaries of office-bearers and servants, and prizes and exhibitions. In December of the same year the first letters patent were issued, founding the Queen's colleges at Belfast, Cork, and Galway, for students in arts, law, physic, and other useful learning, and constituting each college a separate corporation, to consist of one president, one vice-president, and not more than twelve professors in arts, law, and physic, with certain powers therein set forth.

The first president and vice-president of each college were named in these letters patent, and in the commencement of 1846 they received instructions from Government to prepare statutes for the government of the colleges. They directed their attention to the formation, in the first instance, of a faculty of arts in each college, leaving those of medicine and law to be developed at a future period. The Government, however, subsequently determined that provision should be made for three faculties; and accordingly statutes were drawn up by the board of presidents and vice-presidents, comprehending this enlarged scheme. The second letters patent by which these statutes were confirmed, are dated 11th December, 1849. They extended the number of professors who might be appointed for each college, from 12 to 30, but in point of fact, the actual number of professors appointed for each college has been 20, including the vice-president, who also holds a chair. The colleges were opened for the reception of students in the latter part of 1849. The constitution of all the colleges is identical.

The Queen's University in Ireland was founded in the year 1850, for granting degrees in the faculties of arts, medicine, and law, to students who should have completed, in one or other of the three Queen's colleges, the prescribed courses of education. The first examinations in the Queen's University, for degrees in medicine and diplomas in agriculture, were held in October, 1851. No examinations were held in arts and law till the following year, no students in those faculties having, till that time, completed in the colleges the course necessary for graduation.

The Professors.—There are in each college 20 professors, including the vice-president, who is also a professor. All the professors hold their office during pleasure. The appointment of the professors is vested in the Crown. The emoluments of the professors vary in amount. They arise from two sources, salaries from the endowment and class fees. The Commissioners recommended the scale of salaries to be as follows:—Professors of Greek, Latin, history and English literature, logic and metaphysics, mathematics, and natural philosophy, 300*l.* each; professors of chemistry, anatomy and physiology, natural history, mineralogy, and geology, 250*l.* each; professor of modern languages, 200*l.*; professors of jurisprudence and political economy, English law, civil engineering, the practice of medicine, the practice of surgery, materia medica, midwifery, and medical jurisprudence, 150*l.* each.

To enable the students to receive instruction in their respective creeds, power is given in the Colleges Act to the president and professors, or other governing body of the colleges, to assign lecture-rooms within the college, for the use of such religious teachers as shall be recognised by such governing body; and to make rules so as to secure that the religious instruction given therein shall not interfere with the general discipline of the college, subject in each case to the approval of her Majesty; provided however, that no student shall be compelled to attend any religious instruction other than is approved by his parent or guardian. The same act provides that, for the sake of discipline, every student of the colleges must live with his parent or guardian, with some near relation or friend chosen by his parent or guardian, and approved by the president, in a licensed boarding-house, or in an incorporated hall.

The deans of residences are officers constituted under the statutes to have "the moral care and spiritual charge of the students of their respective creeds residing in the licensed boarding-houses." They are appointed by warrant under the sign manual, but they are unable to assume or continue to hold their office unless approved by the bishop, moderator, or other constituted authority of their church or denomination.

There are deans of residences of the United Church of England and Ireland; of the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in Ireland; and of the Wesleyan Methodist Church, in each of the three colleges; and in Belfast there is, in addition, a dean of the Association of Non-subscribing Presbyterians. Roman Catholic deans of residences were appointed for

the Cork and Galway colleges at the period of their opening, and for some time discharged the duties of the office. It appears that a Roman Catholic dean of residences was to be appointed for Belfast College when the meeting of the synod of Thurles took place. Practically there is at present no Roman Catholic dean of residences attached to any of the colleges.

The deans have authority "to visit the licensed boarding-houses in which students of their respective creeds reside, for the purpose of affording religious instruction to such students," and have power, "with the concurrence of the bishop, moderator, or other ecclesiastical authority respectively, to make regulations for the due observance of the religious duties of such students, and for securing their regular attendance on divine worship, such regulations before coming into force to be laid before the president, and certified by him as not interfering with the general discipline of the college. The commissioners recommended that a salary be allotted to the deans of residences in such cases as it may be considered expedient, and proportionable to the extent of their respective duties.

The Body Politic and Corporate.—This body consists, in each college, of the president, vice-president, and professors, with power, as a corporation, to take and hold lands for the use of the college, not exceeding 5,000*l.* a year above all charges, and to take and retain all kinds of personal property. Though thus enabled to acquire and hold property, the Queen's colleges do not enjoy any endowments of this nature.

The Faculties.—In each college there exists the faculties of arts, medicine, and law. The faculty of arts is divided into two sub-faculties—the literary division of the faculty of arts, and the science division of the faculty of arts. The former includes professors of Greek, Latin, history and English literature, modern languages, and the Celtic languages; the latter the professors of mathematics, natural philosophy, chemistry, natural history, logic and metaphysics, mineralogy and geology, civil engineering, and agriculture. The professors of civil engineering and agriculture are classed under the the faculty of arts, although, in reality, these departments are distinct schools in the college, and are recognized as such by the university, which gives a separate diploma in each. The faculty of medicine includes the professors of anatomy and physiology, the practice of medicine, the practice of surgery, materia medica, and midwifery. The faculty of law includes the professors of English law, and jurisprudence and political economy. The two divisions of the faculty of arts, the faculty of medicine, and the faculty of law, have each the power of meeting for the transaction of business, on being summoned by their respective deans with the approval of the President, but their resolutions have no effect until they have received the sanction of the college council. They have also the power of each electing a dean, who presides at the meetings of the faculty, and represents the faculty or division of faculty on the college council. With a view to preserve the balance between literature and science in the governing body of the college, the Commissioners recommended that the literary division

of the faculty of arts and the faculty of law be united for the purpose of electing two members of council; that the science division of the faculty of arts elect two members of council, and the faculty of medicine one member. The Commissioners also recommended the abolition of the chair of the Celtic languages in the literary division, and of the chair of agriculture in the science division of the faculty of arts, and the establishment of a chair of medical jurisprudence in the faculty of medicine.

The Council.—The general government and administration of the college are vested by the statutes in the council. This body consists of the president and vice-president and the four deans of faculty. The change above recommended will alter the constitution of the council, which will in future consist of the president, vice-president, and five elected members, who will not necessarily be the deans of their respective faculties. The president of each college is appointed by, and holds his office during the pleasure of the Crown. The emoluments of the office are 800*l.* a year from the endowment, and a residence in the college. The Commissioners thought that residence should be a condition of holding the office of president, and residence in the sense that the college shall be the president's home. The vice-president of each college is appointed by and holds his office during the pleasure of the Crown. He must be a professor in the college, and his emolument consists of 500*l.* a year, besides his fees from his class, and an official residence in the college.

The Scholars and Scholarships and Prizes.—A sum of 1,500*l.* a year has been allocated from the endowment of each of the colleges to the payment of scholarships and prizes. Of this sum 1,400*l.* have been appropriated to the former purpose, leaving 100*l.* for prizes. The scholarships are divided into junior and senior scholarships. The Commissioners proposed that the junior scholarships shall be modified as follows:—6 first-year junior scholarships in literature and science, value 25*l.* each; 6 second-year junior scholarships, 3 in literature, and 3 in science, value 30*l.* each; 6 third-year junior scholarships, 3 in literature, and 3 in science, value 35*l.* each. As to the senior scholarships, the Commissioners recommended that the 7 annual scholarships of the value of 40*l.* each, in the faculty of arts, should be abolished; and that 4 senior scholarships in each college, tenable for two years, and of the value of 60*l.* each, should be annually awarded for pre-eminent merit in a more general course.

The Students.—The students of the Queen's colleges are divided into matriculated students and non-matriculated students.

The Matriculated Students.—Matriculated students are those who, at entrance, pass a matriculation examination, and then follow a certain curriculum of education, with the view of obtaining degrees or diplomas at the Queen's University. The matriculated students comprise students in arts, law, medicine, civil engineering, and agriculture. The matriculated students in arts, medicine, and law, comprise first-year, second-year, third-

year, and fourth-year students; the fourth-year arts students being, however, bachelors of arts, who are proceeding to the degree of A.M. in the Queen's University. Matriculated students in civil engineering and agriculture comprise first-year and second-year students. The period during which the students attend the collegiate course in each year is called a session. The college session commences on the third Tuesday in the month of October in each year, and terminates on the second Saturday in June, and consists of three terms: the first extending from the commencement of the session to the Christmas recess; the second, from the Christmas recess to the Easter recess; and the third, from the Easter recess to the end of the session. The recesses at Christmas and Easter cannot, by the statutes, exceed two weeks each. In order to rise from the standing of one year to that of another it is necessary to keep the number of terms and to attend the number of lectures prescribed by the college authorities as necessary to keep a session, and in arts and law to pass the sessional examinations of each class.

The Non-Matriculated Students.—These are students who wish to attend lectures on particular subjects, but are not otherwise connected with the college, or with the University system of education. Whilst in the college and in attendance on lectures, they are, however, subject to the rules and discipline of the college. They frequently receive class certificates from the professors, which are valuable to medical students who intend seeking a degree or diploma from some licensing body or university other than the Queen's University, and also to students in Belfast who attend classes in the Queen's College, with the view of being admitted to the examination which they are required by the Presbyterian Church to pass before becoming theological students of the General Assembly's College in that town. It is to be noticed that the non-matriculated students consist, in reality, of two classes—those who are, in fact, professional students, and those who attend college simply for the purpose of acquiring knowledge in particular departments. The numbers of non-matriculated students who have been in attendance at the colleges in each year, to 1857, was as follows:—In 1849-50, 152; in 1850-51, 111; in 1851-52, 106; in 1852-53, 76; in 1853-54, 86; in 1854-55, 103; in 1855-56, 94; in 1856-57, 91: total, 819; but this number only represents 513 individuals, as some students attend more than one session, and are, therefore, enumerated more than once in the table. Of this number, 348 attended one class, 151 two classes, 133 three classes, 114 four classes, 50 five classes, 20 six classes, and 3 seven classes. Of the 819 students, 401 were medical and 418 non-medical. No religious tests are applied to any of the students in the Queen's colleges. Their advantages and privileges are equally open to all, without distinction.

Studies.—The statutes of each college provide that its college council shall have the power of arranging the courses of instruction to be pursued in the college; but the University, by the curricula which it prescribes for

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its degrees and diplomas indirectly controls the courses of study in the colleges.

Faculty of Arts.—By the regulations of the Queen's University, the undergraduate course in the faculty of arts must occupy not less than three sessions. Students may extend the time, however, subject to certain conditions. Before being admitted for examination for the A.B. degree, candidates must have attended lectures in the colleges for at least two full terms in each session, and passed the prescribed college examinations. The courses of study prescribed by the Queen's University are as follows :—

FIRST.—The Greek and Latin languages, three terms; the English language, one term; the modern languages, three terms; and mathematics, three terms.

SECOND.—Logic, one term; chemistry, three terms; principles of zoology and botany, three terms; and the higher mathematics, or the Greek and Latin languages, three terms.

THIRD.—Natural philosophy, three terms; history and English literature, two terms; physical geography, one term; and metaphysics, or jurisprudence and political economy, one term (each).

The college courses are made to harmonize with the foregoing curriculum. Preparatory to entering on this course of study, the council has in each college prescribed matriculation examinations, which now differ, though they were originally the same in all. The matriculation examination is the first point of contact between the college and the school, and the only point through which the action and reaction, of each on the other, are being constantly communicated. This examination must, therefore, be always maintained at a high standard, as indicating the termination of school education, and the starting point of college studies. Nothing could be more injurious to the interests of education than a low standard of matriculation examination as the preliminary qualification for college pursuits. The Commissioners were of opinion with the late Sir William Hamilton, that "Professorial prelections are no substitute for scholastic discipline," and that the University loses its proper character when obliged "to stoop in order to supply the absence or the incompetency of the inferior seminaries." The Commissioners, therefore, recommended that the matriculation examination be maintained at the same standard as originally fixed by the Board of Colleges; and if any change be hereafter made therein, that the tendency of such should always be to elevate, and never to depress, the general standard of school education throughout the country. Under the head Faculty of Arts are included the schools of engineering and agriculture.

The School of Engineering.—In this school the courses in the colleges conform to the courses laid down by the Queen's University for those who, having passed a matriculation examination, are proceeding to the diploma of civil engineering. These courses are as follows :—

FIRST COURSE.—Mathematics, three terms; chemistry, three terms;
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mineralogy, geology, and physical geography, three terms; drawing, three terms; and descriptive geometry, surveying, and mapping, three terms.

SECOND COURSE.—Mathematics, three terms; natural philosophy, three terms; motive powers, construction, and theory of machines, three terms; drawing, three terms; and civil engineering, including the principles of architecture and engineering finance, three terms.

The foregoing courses may be completed in a period of two years. It has been suggested that this time should be extended to three years. The Commissioners thought that this suggestion is worthy of the favourable consideration of the Queen's University. It will be observed that the studies in this school are entirely of a scientific character. The Commissioners were inclined to concur in a suggestion that these studies should include a literary element, and that this element should consist of modern languages, including English. The Commissioners recommended that the school of agriculture, as a distinct school, should be discontinued in the colleges.

Faculty of Medicine.—The course in the college extends over two periods of two years each, the first period comprising the more general parts of a medical education, such as chemistry and anatomy, the second period comprising chiefly, but not exclusively, matters of a more practical character, such as the theory and practice of surgery, the theory and practice of medicine, &c. The student in medicine, who intends to graduate in the Queen's University, is not obliged to pursue his entire medical course in the Queen's colleges, as the University senate receive from the professors or lecturers of other colleges or schools, recognized by them, certificates of attendance on two-thirds of the medical course. A University examination takes place in the subjects contained in the course of the first period at the end of that time; and so, in like manner, at the close of the second period in the subjects comprised in that course. At one or other of these examinations candidates for the M.D. degree are obliged to pass an examination in natural philosophy and French, lectures on which they must have previously attended in the colleges. It is competent for the student to present himself for both of the examinations at the final or M.D. examination. Honours are given at each of the examinations. As none of the members of the commission belong to the medical profession, they refrained from entering into many of the details which have been brought under their consideration in connection with this faculty, and contented themselves with referring them to the consideration of the senate of the Queen's University, and of the councils of the several colleges.

Faculty of Law.—It appears from the Colleges Act and the first letters patent, that an education in law for students in the Queen's colleges formed part of the original plan. Two professors in each of the colleges conduct the legal education—the professor of jurisprudence and political economy, and the professor of English law. The former, who also lectures the arts students of the third year on jurisprudence and political economy, delivers lectures in the faculty of law to first-year students on jurisprudence; to

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second-year students on the civil law; and to fourth-year students on constitutional, colonial, and international law. The professor of English law delivers lectures to first-year students on the law of property and the principles of conveyancing; to second-year students on equity and bankruptcy; to third-year students on common and criminal law; and to fourth-year students a course on the law of evidence and pleading. In the fourth year the student has also to attend a course of lectures with the lecturer on medical jurisprudence. The Queen's University recognizes the studies of the matriculated student in law by a diploma of elementary law, granted on examination to students who have attended the lectures delivered in the first three years of legal study. It recognizes further the completion of the fourth-year studies by conferring the degree of LL.B. on the candidate who passes an examination in all the subjects of the undergraduate course in law with the exception of medical jurisprudence, provided he has proceeded to the A.B. degree. It also proposes to confer the degree of LL.D. at the expiration of two years after having obtained the degree of LL.B., on the candidate who shall pass a second examination in the subjects prescribed for the LL.B. examination, and in addition, in the admiralty and ecclesiastical laws. The Commissioners reported that the advantages which might be derived from such a course of study in law have not to any large extent been realized. The average annual attendance being about 20 students in the three colleges, and the entire number of diplomas granted by the University being 13, and of degrees, 6. In the law school of Trinity College the attendance in 1855-56 was about 25.

Progress of the Colleges.—The great majority of the students who have entered the Queen's colleges have belonged to the middle classes of society. The total number of students matriculated and non-matriculated who have entered the Queen's colleges since their opening in 1849-50 was—matriculated students, 1,209; non-matriculated students, 559; total 1,768. Except in the first year, when the number of students entered was 375, the average number of entries has been 160. But though the number of students entering has been stationary, this has not been the case with the number of students *attending* the colleges. The number attending, which is a better test of the estimation in which the education afforded in the colleges is held, as well as of their progress, has been constantly increasing since the year when the colleges assumed their normal condition, the number having been in 1852-3, 359; in 1853-54, 379; in 1854-55, 410; in 1855-56, 438; in 1856-57, 454; and in 1857-58, 445. In the last year there was some falling off at Cork. The admixture of the religious denominations in the several colleges will be seen from the following facts:—Since their opening in 1849-50, there were entered in Belfast, Cork, and Galway, of matriculated students 377 belonging to the United Church of England and Ireland, 402 Roman Catholics, 307 General Assembly Presbyterians, 41 Wesleyan Methodists, 36 Non-subscribing Presbyterians, 11 Covenanters, 10 Independents, 4 Dissenters, 3 Baptists, 3 Seceders, 1 Society of Friends, 1 Uni-

tarian, 13 not classed; total, 1,209. It may here be observed that the divinity students of the Established and Roman Catholic Churches naturally obtain their education at Trinity College or Maynooth, and do not enter the Queen's colleges; while, on the contrary, candidates for the Presbyterian ministry usually receive their secular education at one or other of these institutions.

The Commissioners completed their report in the following terms:—

We should be glad to be able to report a larger number of students availing themselves of the great advantages held out to them in the Queen's colleges; but we think that the colleges cannot be regarded as otherwise than successful, when, notwithstanding opposing causes, to which we shall presently allude, they have in their halls, attending lectures, nearly 450 students. It may be said that the non-matriculated students should not be brought into the enumeration; but it would be unfair to exclude them in estimating the work done by the colleges. We consider that any impression which may exist as to the Queen's colleges not having succeeded, arises mainly from what is done in the colleges being imperfectly understood, and further, from the comparatively small number of those who meet in Dublin to be examined for degrees in the Queen's University, and who, thus coming very prominently before the public, are taken as the only test of the success of the colleges.

It is our opinion, from comparing the number of students who are shown to have attended throughout the whole course in the college, with the number who have actually proceeded to graduate at the university, that the success of the colleges should not be judged by the number of degrees conferred. Neither can attendance throughout the whole course be taken as the sole proof of all the educational work done by the colleges, for many who have attended a portion of the course, and received a certain though deficient amount of education, still from various causes, such as having obtained appointments in the public service, in mercantile establishments, or as tutors, or from ill-health or family circumstances, do not complete the curriculum. There is also a considerable class, consisting of those who are unable to go through their course on account of the severity of the college training. We think that this is but a temporary difficulty, which will be removed when the students are enabled to acquire a higher school education than it is possible for them to do at present. We are of opinion that a main cause of the falling off of the number of students in their college course, is the want of any positive motive for the student to complete a university education, in the Queen's colleges.

In arts, the A.B. degree as yet confers no social *status*, or almost none; nor does it confer any particular privilege on its possessor, save entitling him to be admitted a little sooner than he otherwise could be to either branch of the legal profession. The Queen's colleges afford no divinity education, nor can they be regarded as the roads to the clerical profession in Ireland, except to a limited extent in the case of the Presbyterian Church. They have none of the fellowships or livings which belong to the older universities, and which exercise no slight influence in attracting and retaining students. In medicine, the medical degree, as we have seen, is under positive disability, and the more lax requirements of the various licensing bodies allure from the colleges students who would otherwise be likely to

complete their education in them. In law, a strict and severe legal education is insisted on, but no privileges of any importance are attached to the possession of the degrees in law.

We attach the utmost importance to the existence of a university, in connection with the Queen's colleges, to which students of those colleges may resort for graduation. In fact, we consider it essential to their success; but we think that the number of students graduating in the Queen's University affords a most fallacious test to judge of the work performed in, or the progress of, the Queen's colleges. A new university, with its component colleges, established in a country where none had previously existed, would not, in the space of a few years, acquire a reputation or become the resort of very large numbers of students. Still less could it be expected to do so in Ireland, where the ground, to a certain extent, was already occupied.

That the Queen's colleges have not aggregated to their halls, in preference to the old universities, any large numbers of those who generally take a university education, is nothing more than might have been reasonably expected. The Queen's colleges are entirely destitute of that prestige and of those associations which, in so many cases, determine the place of education for the sons of those who receive and who most value a liberal education. While these circumstances have operated against their receiving students from the higher classes, the difficulty of obtaining an elementary classical education has been an obstacle to the middle classes of society entering the Queen's colleges. This want has been, and, if not supplied, must still continue to be, perhaps, the most powerful cause in preventing the youth of Ireland availing themselves of the advantages held out by the Queen's colleges.

The endowed schools of Ireland have hitherto been mainly in connection with the Established Church and with Trinity College, Dublin. As might be expected, they consequently have not afforded education to any large number of students entering the Queen's colleges. It would appear that the royal schools of Ireland, out of 694 students who have entered the Queen's College, Belfast, to 1856-57, have supplied but 14 students, and the other endowed schools in Ulster but 12 students—in all 26, or less than 1-26th of the students who have entered that college. The best students of the royal schools are attracted to Dublin by school exhibitions in Trinity College, while all their associations almost necessarily induce the mass of the boys educated in them to proceed to that institution. We think that it is only a matter of justice that students educated at great public schools should not be deprived of any advantages of the nature of exhibitions, if they should think fit to resort for their education to colleges which, aided by the liberality of Parliament, your Majesty has founded and endowed for the better advancement of learning among all classes in Ireland. But, in addition to any changes that may be made in the existing system of intermediate schools, we feel called on to express our opinion that the advantages for obtaining a high education, both in the Queen's colleges and in Trinity College, can only be realized for the great mass of the middle classes by the much wider extension of the means of intermediate education, which, it is almost universally stated, have been enormously diminished by the operation of the schools under the National Board, in which, although no classical instruction is given, yet the English education afforded is so superior as to have drawn off the scholars who had hitherto been the main support of the lower classical schools.

In considering the success of the Queen's colleges, the condition of Ireland cannot be ignored. When the colleges were opened, the country had hardly recovered from the effects of the terrible calamity of famine, which crippled the means of an important proportion both of the higher and middle classes of the Irish people, and also, temporarily at least, changed the social circumstances of the country. The opposition of the authorities of the Roman Catholic Church must also be regarded as an important operating cause against the more complete success of the colleges. This opposition, it would appear, originally arose in consequence of a supposition that the system of education pursued in the Queen's colleges would be dangerous to faith and morals. We thought it right to make particular inquiry into this subject; and, as we have already reported, nothing whatever has occurred in the colleges which would justify this apprehension, or indicate that the religion of any student has been in the slightest degree interfered with. Considering that the Queen's colleges were founded for the advantage of all classes of your Majesty's subjects in Ireland of all religious denominations, we feel assured that should the present regulations at any time be found defective, such additional measures as may appear requisite will be adopted for securing the students against anything calculated to interfere with their religious convictions. A strict adherence to this principle has been, and must always continue to be, the basis upon which these colleges rest. We have to express our anxious hope that the strong feelings entertained on this point in opposition to the colleges will gradually undergo a change, when experience proves that the duties of religion can be attended to without raising up barriers of exclusiveness at the entrance of life between those who will have to spend their lives together as citizens of a common country.

To the obstacles we have referred to as interfering with the complete success of the colleges, we may add another circumstance, which must seriously affect the numbers of students attending them. The University of Dublin must be regarded as a successful competitor for a large number of students who would naturally go to the Queen's colleges, were it not for the exceptional system of non-residence permitted in Trinity College. It appears, from the Report of the Dublin University Commission, that of 1,217 undergraduates in Trinity College in 1852, only 636 were resident in the college and in Dublin and its suburbs. Of the remainder (nearly one-half of the entire), many, it might be supposed, would resort to the Queen's colleges if a rigid system of residence were enforced in Trinity College.

We are able to report with unqualified satisfaction of the educational progress of the colleges. Although but a short time in operation, they have distinguished themselves in those great public contests in which even the most distinguished students of the old universities are proud of success. At the examinations for the most important appointments that are disposed of in these countries—the writerships in the East India Company's service—in the first year in which they were instituted (1855), a student from the Queen's College, Cork, and another from the Queen's College, Galway, were amongst the successful competitors; in the second year (1856), a second student from the Cork College was successful; and in the third year (1857), three students taking the first, fourth, and tenth places, and the only candidates from their college, evidenced the character of the education given in the Belfast College. In the other departments, too—at the

Woolwich examinations and at the Indian Medical Service examinations—students from the Queen's colleges have appeared with distinction and success.

We think, however, that the good done by the Queen's colleges, as great public institutions in Ireland, cannot be estimated merely by the number of students in their halls, or by the successful candidates whom they may send to the great public contests of the educated youth of the empire. We believe that, beyond this, they are, by the honourable competition existing between the students and professors of the several Queen's colleges amongst themselves, and also by the healthy and, we hope, friendly competition with the University of Dublin, materially aiding in advancing learning in Ireland. We believe that the colleges are calculated, and we trust the association of students of various creeds and opinions within their walls does operate, to soften those feelings of party antagonism and sectarian animosity which have heretofore unhappily had too extended an existence in Ireland; and that they are rapidly generating a feeling of local self-reliance and of self-respect, and exciting an interest in the culture of literature and science throughout the community at large.

NO. C.—ENDOWED SCHOOLS (IRELAND).

Report of Her Majesty's Commissioners appointed to inquire into the Endowments, Funds, and Actual Condition of all Schools endowed for the purpose of Education in Ireland.

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.*]

THIS Commission was issued the 14th of November, 1854, directed to the Marquis of Kildare, Dr. Charles Graves, Dr. Robert Andrews, Henry George Hughes, Q.C., and Archibald John Stephens, Esq., barrister-at-law, with Mr. William Neilson Hancock, secretary; and their report was made on the 1st of February, 1858. The report gives an historical sketch of the endowed schools in Ireland; and after a lengthy exposition of the system of education pursued in the different schools, concludes with the following summary of suggestions.

I.—RECOMMENDATIONS RELATING TO SCHOOLS AND ENDOWMENTS GENERALLY, IRRESPECTIVE OF THEIR SPECIAL NATURE OR OBJECTS.

The General Government of Schools.—The Commissioners were of opinion that the intentions of the founders of all private school trusts should be adhered to. That the chief causes of abuse and inefficiency in endowed schools of all kinds are the following:—

- a. The want of inspection, conducted with authority by duly qualified inspectors, visiting at short and uncertain intervals.
- b. The want of properly trained masters receiving adequate remuneration, and animated in the discharge of their duty by the prospects of promotion and of retiring pensions as the reward of faithful service.
- c. The smallness of many of the endowments.
- d. The incomplete and unsafe modes at present in use of keeping the

accounts of school funds and revenues, and the want of a proper system of audit.

c. The want of a clear definition and public announcement of the qualifications and rights of pupils to free admission.

That it is possible to separate the courses of secular and religious instruction so far as to enable scholars of different religious denominations to receive instruction of the former kind in the same school, without compromise of opinions or risk of offence; and that one of the chief recommendations of day schools, and of the great advantages which these possess over boarding schools, consists in the facilities which they afford for combining home instruction in religious and moral principles with school instruction of a purely secular nature. That the trustees of all boarding-schools should be enabled to discontinue the boarding department, and to employ the endowment in the support of the pupils as residents in families specially selected on the principle of their holding the same religious belief, and residing in localities where the children can attend day-schools approved of by their parents or guardians, and where they can also enjoy the spiritual instruction and care of the clergy of the same denomination. That it is objectionable for the master to be allowed to conduct a school in connexion with any other office or appointment. That any delay in the appointment of masters in vacancies in schools is peculiarly injurious, as the education of the children is interrupted, and the risk incurred of the school being entirely broken up. That masters should be required to record the infliction of flogging in the report-book of the school, and that the observance of this rule should be rigidly enforced. That the intentions of founders, as to free admissions, are very generally evaded; that the trustees, and others charged with the management, should take steps to define clearly the rights of free admission; that they ought strictly to enforce the observance of the rules thus framed, to make them known to the persons interested, by a public announcement, and to guard, by examination or otherwise, against any abuse of the privilege of nomination, so as to secure to all those intended to be benefited the full and fair opportunity of sharing in the privilege of free admission. That it is desirable that a well-regulated system of distributing prizes should be established in connection with all endowed schools.

Inspection of Schools.—That systematic inspection and periodical examinations are essential in order to maintain the efficiency of schools; and that the want of inspection, conducted with authority, by duly qualified inspectors, visiting at short and uncertain intervals, constitutes one of the chief causes of abuse and inefficiency in endowed schools of all kinds. That visitors and trustees should be required by statute to visit the schools at least once a year; that the visitation should be in public, and after due notice; that the results of the visitation, with the rules, orders, and decisions of the visitors should be published in the *Dublin Gazette*, and also in some newspaper circulating in the locality; and that copies of all reports, rules, orders, and decisions of visitors and trustees should be deposited with the proposed registrar of school endowments. That ex-officio trustees should be empowered to appoint representatives to act in their place on any board that they find themselves unable to attend; the representative to hold office for a fixed period specified in his appointment, not being less than one or more than three years, provided the person who appointed him should so

long hold the office which gives him the right of being trustee, the representative, when once appointed, to possess all the powers of a trustee; and that in case an *ex officio* trustee does not attend, the other trustees of the charity should have power to call on him to appoint a representative, and in default of his doing so, to appoint one themselves.

Teachers.—That the want of properly trained masters, receiving adequate remuneration, and animated in the discharge of their duty by the prospects of promotion, and of retiring pensions, as the reward of faithful service, constitutes one of the chief causes of abuse and inefficiency in endowed schools of all kinds. That the provision made for the teachers ought to be such as to enable them to maintain themselves and to provide for their families in a manner suitable to their education and position in society, without its being necessary for them to resort to any extraneous employment as a means of livelihood. That with a view to the adoption of a system of superannuation, so far as may be practicable, statutable provision should be made, enabling the trustees of charities to grant retiring pensions to masters in recognition of faithful service. That the following plan is well adapted to form the basis for a system of superannuation as regards all endowments, the amount of which admits of its being put in execution; namely, that the age for retirement should be fixed, and that schoolmasters should be required to insure for a sum equal to, at least, three times their annual salary, payable at that period, or at death, whichever should first happen, the policy being assigned to the managers of the school, and the premiums paid by a deduction from salaries where the salary is large, and by an increase where the salaries are too small to admit of this being properly done.

Course of Instruction.—That the requirements of a liberal system of modern education embrace instruction not only in the classics and mathematics, but in the English language and literature, foreign languages, and the experimental and natural sciences. That with adequate endowments, competent masters, and suitable arrangements, such a combined course can be made the basis of a general system of intermediate education. That the extent to which it can be carried out as a whole, and the relative development given to each department in the education of the individual pupil, must vary with circumstances, and especially with the period during which his stay at school is prolonged, and the sphere of active life for which he is destined. That pupils of the middle class, intended for the pursuits of agriculture, commerce, and manufacture, might with advantage carry on the study of Latin, provided they are not likely to be removed from school at too early a period. That the practice of oral instruction should be adopted in all departments much more generally than is done at present. That the general supervision of the English, no less than of the classical and scientific departments, is an essential part of the duty of the head-master; and that its conduct and management ought to be committed to the charge of accomplished scholars. That the amount of time and attention at present devoted to the English department and modern languages in most grammar schools is very insufficient; and that the existing methods of teaching these branches are defective. That the system of classical instruction hitherto pursued in grammar schools in Ireland is defective, and requires alteration by diminishing the amount of time at present devoted to the study of the dead languages, and improving the method of teaching them. That the scientific course in intermediate schools should be enlarged

by the introduction of the elements of astronomy, experimental physics, chemistry, and the biological sciences for the more advanced classes. That it is desirable that funds should exist in connection with all endowed intermediate schools for providing the models and instruments essential for illustrating astronomy and the physical sciences; laboratories for elementary instruction in chemistry; and collections of objects relating to natural history. That instruction in book-keeping, mensuration, and drawing, should form a part of the general course in all schools; and that navigation should be taught in such as are situate in or near seaports. That proper attention should be paid in girls' schools for all classes, but especially in primary schools, to instruction in needlework, as forming part of their general education; but that the teaching of lace-making and fancy work should not be allowed to take the place of this, or to interfere with the main object of giving a sound mental and moral training. That, in schools for training teachers, instruction in music, and especially in singing from note, should be given to all who are capable of receiving it; and that vocal music should be made a part of the general system of education.

Registration of School Endowments.—That a separate office should be established for the Registration of School Endowments, where the originals or copies of all deeds, wills, and other documents containing trusts for school purposes, or perfect extracts therefrom, should be lodged and committed to the custody of an officer exclusively charged with the duty of preserving and arranging them, and making their contents accessible and known to the public; and that the cost of maintaining this office, together with all expenses incidental thereto, properly incurred in the exercise of the registrar's functions, should be borne by the Consolidated Fund. That all title deeds and documents in the power or possession of the former secretary of the Lord Lieutenant's School Fund Commissioners, the Association for Discountenancing Vice, and the Kildare-Place Society, relating to schools founded or assisted by them respectively; all educational documents, and instruments relating to endowments now in the possession of our commission; and also all muniments of title of schools actually vested in the proposed Board of Endowed Schools, should be transferred to the registrar; and that this officer should be empowered to call upon the trustees or persons having the management of all other schools and school endowments, whether exclusive or non-exclusive, for copies of, or perfect extracts from, all deeds, wills, or other documents containing trusts for school or educational purposes in their possession or power; and to take charge of the originals in case the trustees should be willing to deposit them in his office. That it should be made part of the business of the Court of Probate and of the office for the Registration of Deeds and Wills in Ireland, to make returns to the registrar of all devises, bequests, grants, and other charitable gifts relating to schools or destined for educational purposes; such returns, so far as wills are concerned, to consist of extracts, which it would be the duty of the registrar of school endowments to examine, in order to satisfy himself that they were, in a legal point of view, sufficient and constituted complete documents on which all persons could safely act. That the Court of Probate in Ireland should be required, in all cases of wills containing bequests for educational purposes, to make returns to the registrar of school endowments, showing the value of the testator's property as estimated for the purpose of imposing probate duty, together with the names of the representatives who have proved the will. That the

Succession and Legacy Duty Office should make similar returns in any case where the representatives apply either to have a deduction of probate duty made, or to pay an increased amount; and should also make returns of the exact sum, or estimated value of all gifts, made for educational purposes,—whether by deed or will, and consisting either of real or of personal property,—which it became necessary to ascertain with a view to the collection of the legacy or succession duties. That the Court of Probate and the Succession and Legacy Duty Office in England should be required to make similar returns in respect of any wills proved or deeds executed there, which might contain gifts for educational purposes in Ireland. That it should be part of the duty of the public offices above mentioned to give every facility for the complete performance of the registrar's functions, and that no fees should be chargeable in respect of any such searches as he might deem it necessary to make. That it should also form part of the duty of this officer to make the list of foundation deeds and other similar instruments as complete as possible; to add statements showing the amount realized, the names of the trustees, and generally the nature and extent of the endowments; and to classify the information thus obtained, with indices to the several heads and references to maps and plans, in such a manner as to render it available for the protection of the endowments, and useful to the public. That the registrar should, periodically, and at short intervals, make returns to the proposed Board of Endowed Schools of the above matters, so far as the same might relate to non-exclusive endowments. That he should receive formal notice of all judicial sales. That copies of all proceedings had upon visitations, and of all reports, rules, orders, and decisions relating to educational endowments in Ireland, should be deposited with the registrar, whose duty it would be to compare them with the originals, with a view of ascertaining their correctness. That copies of any documents in his custody, made and certified by him, should be rendered *prima facie* evidence by statute. That the public should be entitled to inspect the registers, and to make copies of, or take extracts from them, free of expense; and that the registrar should be bound to give such information and advice to parties seeking the same, as might be calculated to promote the interests of the charities. That the registrar should be required to make an annual report, showing the existing state of school endowments in Ireland.

Audit of Accounts.—That a uniform system of keeping the accounts of educational charities by double entry, with regularity, and in accordance with a definite plan, would tend to remove many of the present abuses of school endowments. That the facts which have come to our knowledge respecting the accounts of the several charities into which we have inquired, disclosing, as they do, misapplication of funds, or their loss, ignorance, error, and systematic neglect in the management of endowments, abundantly prove the necessity for the constant and strict exercise of an external and independent supervision to control and direct their financial affairs. That boards, consisting of persons unacquainted with accounts, cannot be safely intrusted with the important and responsible duty of examining and auditing the accounts of their various officers; and that audit, to be efficient, must be publicly conducted by a competent and independent board. That a Board of Audit should be established in Dublin, either as a separate office, or as a branch of the general Board of Audit; that the expense of maintaining it need not be incurred for endowed schools alone, inasmuch as the

audit of accounts of other local institutions (such as the municipal corporations), may advantageously be included in its duties; that the proposed Board of Audit should have the additional powers suggested by the Commissioners of Audit in London, of enforcing the transmission of accounts and vouchers, of surcharging in case of default, of prosecuting defaulters and recovering balances; and that these powers should be given to the Board directly, without any reference to the Lord Lieutenant or the Secretary of State, save in so far as it should be obliged to make periodical reports to the Lord Lieutenant to be laid before Parliament when required.

The Protection and General Management of Endowments.—That the protection of school sites and other endowments consisting of land would be greatly facilitated by the establishment of a general registry of conveyances, based on a public map, and having the transactions of each county or poor law union registered in the same local office, with a central office serving the double purpose of supplying a general index and means of reference, and securing the conveyances against any destruction or fraudulent alteration of the records contained in the local registry. That the practice of trustees selling out the principal of the charity funds, in order to meet current expenses, merits condemnation, and that a public audit of accounts would tend to check this abuse. That the principle of exemption from legacy duty should be extended to all charities applicable in Ireland, independent of the domicile of the testator. That as regards endowments terminable in their nature—such as annuities for life—or requiring constant vigilance—as house property—trustees should be empowered to vary the security, and, with that view, to dispose of the endowment, laying out the proceeds in land, head-rents, or Government security. That stamp duties and court fees on all proceedings, both at law and in equity, instituted respecting educational charities, should be abolished. That as regards schools under the jurisdiction of the Court of Chancery, the audit of the Government auditor should be a sufficient discharge to the trustees, without its being necessary for them to account before the master, or to incur the expenses attendant thereon. That jurisdiction, similar to that now possessed by the Court of Chancery, should be given to the assistant-barrister, as to all charities of a small amount,—subject, however, to an appeal to the Court of Chancery, on a statement of facts, signed by the assistant-barrister; and that the decision of the assistant-barrister upon the amount or value of the endowment in any case, should be final and conclusive. That jurisdiction should be given to the assistant-barrister empowering him to entertain cases of ejectment on the title as regards land not exceeding, in the whole, two acres, which has at any time been the subject of an educational charity, where such is proved, to his satisfaction, to have been the fact, subject only to an appeal at the next assizes, or to one of the superior Courts of Common Law, on a statement of facts, signed by the assistant-barrister.

School-houses and Premises.—That in cases where it can be proved that the public money was expended on the faith of a promised grant, steps should now be taken for having such intention carried into effect; and that legislative provision should, so far as may be necessary, be made for empowering the present owners, or persons on their behalf, to complete such grants, and enabling the trustees to enforce the execution of the agreement originally made. That boards intrusted with the actual management of endowed schools should be empowered to change their locality, and also to dispose of the existing school sites and premises, or portions thereof, by way

either of exchange or sale (the proceeds of such sale to be invested in land, head-rents, or Government security), where such a course may be deemed by them desirable; the consent thereto of the proposed Board of Endowed Schools being first obtained as to endowments under their jurisdiction, and that of the Lord Lieutenant and Privy Council in all other cases. That the title conferred on grants made under the provisions of the Leasing Powers Act for Religious Worship (Ireland), 1855, should be made an absolute parliamentary title. That leasing powers should be conferred on all persons under disabilities, enabling them, or others on their behalf, to execute grants of land for the use of schools, not exceeding half an acre in towns, or two acres in the country; and that grants so made should give an absolute parliamentary title.

Management of Estates.—That the local management of endowed school estates should be intrusted to agents chosen with a careful regard to their skill, energy, and character; their residence near the property, when sufficiently large, and in all cases their ability to visit it frequently, being made indispensable. The circumstance of their having successfully conducted and continuing to hold other agencies for neighbouring estates being regarded as constituting an additional qualification. That the agents should be required to adopt a uniform system of printed rentals and accounts, and that the latter should, in every case, be furnished within six months after the gale-day to which they are made out, stating the date when each tenant paid his rent, and showing all the items, both of receipts and expenditure, up to the period of rendering it. That whenever the balance in the agent's hands amounted to a specified sum he ought to lodge it in the bank. That the agent should, as portion of his general duty, direct his attention to plans for the improvement of the property, subject to the approval of the trustees; and should especially aim at reducing or getting rid of existing arrears, and preventing their future accumulation, by insisting on the punctual payment of the rents, or, in proper cases, by their temporary abatement or remission. That the trustees should adopt a system of inspection of estates, with a view to secure both the efficiency of the agents and uniformity in the general management; that the inspection of each estate should take place annually, and be such as a prudent landlord would make of his own estate, and consequently that the person to conduct the inspection ought to be in such a position as to command the respect of the agent and tenants. That general rules should be promulgated, for the guidance of both agents and tenants, against the sub-letting and dividing of farms, and the exhaustion of the land, and that covenants prohibiting these practices should be inserted in all agricultural leases; and that the trustees should turn their attention to general plans for the improvement of the properties, varying, of course, with the circumstances and locality of these, and based on the principle either of executing the required works themselves, or of assisting the tenants in doing so; an additional rent being charged by way of interest for the sums thus expended or advanced. That powers to grant agricultural leases for the term of twenty-one years, and building leases for long terms, should, under proper precautions, be given to all boards and trustees having estates for endowed schools under their management. That it is not desirable or safe to intrust the exercise of leasing powers, even for agricultural purposes, to the agent solely, but that his recommendations should be reviewed by an inspector, to whom the general supervision and control of the estates should, subject to the approval of the trustees, be con-

fided. That lands granted or devised for the endowment of schools should, as a general rule, be preserved; but that with a view to the advantageous consolidation of the property, or for the purpose of otherwise rendering the management of the endowments more easy and economical, boards and trustees should be empowered to sell school estates vested in them, reinvesting the proceeds in land; the consent of the proposed Board of Endowed Schools being first obtained as to endowments under their jurisdiction, and that of the Lord Lieutenant and Privy Council in all other cases.

II.—RECOMMENDATIONS RELATING TO NON-EXCLUSIVE SCHOOLS AND
ENDOWMENTS PLACED UNDER CENTRAL MANAGEMENT.

Government and Superintendence of Non-Exclusive Schools and Endowments, and proposed Board of Endowed Schools.—That the statutes constituting the Commissioners of Education in Ireland should be repealed, and that a new board should be established, composed of a sufficient number of members, all of whom ought to be nominated by the Government, and selected with a due regard to the representation of the various religious persuasions; that one of the commissioners should receive a salary, and be expected to devote his whole time to the business of the board; and that the educational function being the primary and most important office of such an institution, the paid commissioner should be selected mainly with a view to the promotion of this end. That it is essential to establish a system of efficient and periodical inspection of schools, and that this can only be conducted by an inspector, well trained, and adequately paid; that this officer, or, if needed, several paid inspectors, should be connected with the proposed Board of Commissioners of Endowed Schools, and that it should be part of the duty of the paid commissioner to make visitations with reference to some, at all events, of the chief schools. That a secretary and other subordinate officers would be necessary; that provision should be made for the paid inspection of the school estates; and that the expenses of the proposed board should be borne by the Consolidated Fund, in conformity with the principle established by the 53rd Geo. III. c. 107. That, as the proposed board would be a mixed one, constituted for the superintendence of non-exclusive schools, their jurisdiction should not extend to exclusive schools, under which term we mean to include those into which pupils of only one religious persuasion have a right of admission, or the trustees of which, being of one religious persuasion, have power to compel all the pupils to receive religious instruction in their own tenets. That, with the exception of exclusive schools, as above defined, and also of any primary school, the trustees of which shall place it in connection with the National Board, all other endowed schools in Ireland should be placed under the proposed Board of Endowed Schools; and that the new commissioners should have powers enabling them to inspect, regulate, and superintend the management of these, similar to those now intrusted to the Commissioners of Education in Ireland. That the property, as well as the management of the royal and diocesan schools, and of all other non-exclusive schools now vested in the Commissioners of Education in Ireland, ought to be transferred to the proposed board, with power (where necessary or deemed advisable) to redistribute the revenues, to consolidate or divide the schools, and to remove them to different localities. That the commissioners should, so far as is consistent with the existing rights of private patronage, have the

appointment of the head masters of all schools vested in them; and should, in addition to this, possess a large measure of control over, and a power of dismissing, the teachers in such schools for inefficiency or other sufficient cause shown, although no actual misconduct might exist or could be proved; and that they should also be empowered to regulate the salaries of the teachers and assistant teachers in such schools, to promote them, and, in cases of faithful service, to grant retiring pensions. That the commissioners should have authority to regulate the course of instruction in all schools within their jurisdiction. That the commissioners should be empowered to make regulations as to the admission of free pupils into endowed schools vested in them; and that they should, as regards all schools within their jurisdiction, endeavour to secure a clear definition and public announcement of the qualifications and rights of pupils to free admission. That the property and actual management of non-exclusive schools, which are vested in trustees other than the Commissioners of Education, should, as a general rule, continue in the existing trustees; but that these should be empowered, if they desire so to do, to transfer the management of such schools, and of their revenues, to the proposed board; and that the Court of Chancery should have power, in cases where mismanagement is shown to exist, on the summary application of the commissioners, to remove the existing trustees of non-exclusive schools, and to transfer the care of the school and endowment to the new board, as well as to enforce its orders in like manner as provided by the Act establishing the Commissioners of Education. That, as a general principle, land granted or devised for the endowment of schools should be preserved, the commissioners making due provision for its efficient management; that, with a view to this, it is desirable to continue the practice generally adopted by the Commissioners of Education, of employing local agents; but that there ought also to be an inspection of the estates, once a year, at least, conducted by a competent officer, on behalf of the central board. That occasional visits to the estates should be paid by some of the commissioners themselves who might be specially fitted for that office. That, for the building of new schools and the repairs of existing ones, the proposed Board of Endowed Schools should be enabled to avail itself of the assistance of the Board of Public Works. That the new board should be empowered to sell the estates vested in it, with the consent, however, of the Lord Lieutenant and Privy Council, and subject to the condition that the proceeds of the sale be reinvested in land. That the proposed Board of Endowed Schools should be empowered to decide on the propriety of selling or exchanging school sites, or portions thereof, or of changing the locality of schools, and also to appoint new trustees; and that similar powers, together with the power of exchanging or selling school estates, should be conferred on the trustees who have the actual management of endowments under the jurisdiction of the proposed board, to be exercised, however, only with its consent. That the proposed board should have powers of granting agricultural leases for twenty-one years, and building leases for long terms of years. That the accounts of the Commissioners of Endowed Schools, and of the several schools under their superintendence, should be audited at least once a year by the proposed Board of Audit in Dublin. That the Commissioners of Endowed Schools should annually make a report to Parliament of all their proceedings, including the results of their inspection of schools.

Diocesan Free Schools.—That the diocesan free schools are, by their

constitution, essentially non-exclusive; that they are not intended for pupils of only one religious persuasion, and that the master has no power to compel all the pupils to receive religious instruction in his own tenets. That the vesting of the patronage, inspection, and government of these schools in the same board, would contribute in a great degree to their efficiency, and that they should be placed under the proposed Board of Commissioners of Endowed Schools. That the patronage of the diocesan free schools now vested in the Lord Lieutenant should be transferred to the proposed Board of Commissioners of Endowed Schools; this arrangement not interfering with the patronage of such diocesan schools as are vested in the Archbishop of Armagh, the Archbishop of Dublin, and the Bishop of Meath, respectively. That the practice now generally adopted of appointing clergymen of the United Church as masters of these schools interferes with their success as non-exclusive endowments. That the present mode of collecting the sums payable by the clergy to the masters of diocesan free schools is unsatisfactory; and that this duty should be performed by the Ecclesiastical Commissioners. That, although the mastership of the school should be vacant, the sums payable by the clergy ought to be collected, and, as in the case of other endowments, allowed to accumulate. That a minimum number of free places should be fixed by statute, with power for the Commissioners of Endowed Schools, on the appointment of any new master, to increase the number; that some of the free places should be open, under the regulations of the commissioners, to children whose domestic circumstances are very limited; and that not less than half of them ought to be awarded by competitive examination, amongst the sons of inhabitants of the district to which the school belongs, and in default of such successful candidates, to other boys; that free places should only be held upon condition of good conduct and progress in the school; and that the entire regulations respecting the free places be intrusted to the proposed Board of Commissioners of Endowed Schools. That where the grand juries build the school-houses, the presentment for repairs should be imperative; that the school-houses should be placed under the care of, and the execution of the repairs intrusted to, the Commissioners of Public Works; and that the sum expended and certified by them should be distributed over the entire district to which the school belongs, even though extending into different counties. That the Grand Jury Act of 1836 should be amended by the re-enactment of the provisions of the 3rd Geo. IV., cap. 79, s. 10, so as to deprive the grand jury of the power of insisting on the disunion of two dioceses previous to granting a presentment for repairs. That when a diocesan school-house suited for the reception of boarders has been erected at a public expense, it should not be left optional with the master to take boarders or not. That the ruinous state of the diocesan school-house at Carlow and the want of repair of that at Wexford, are such as to make it desirable that a remedy should be applied by promptly effecting a change in the state of the law in the manner before recommended. That the endowment of Loughrea Diocesan Free School should be united with that of Elphin, and that the endowments for the dioceses of Cashel and Emly should be united with that for Waterford and Lismore, for a school at Waterford. That immediate appointments should be made by the Lord Lieutenant to the school at Tralee, and to the proposed school at Waterford.

Royal Free Schools and School Estates.—That the royal free schools are,

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by their constitution, essentially non-exclusive ; that they are not intended for pupils of only one religious persuasion, and that the master has no power to compel all the pupils to receive religious instruction in his own tenets. That the vesting of the patronage, inspection, and government of these schools in the same board, would contribute to their permanent efficiency ; and that they should be placed under the proposed Board of Commissioners of Endowed Schools. That the patronage of the royal free schools, so far as it is vested in the crown, should be transferred to the proposed Board of Commissioners of Endowed Schools. That the Commissioners of Education ought to have laid down, at an earlier period, the rule made by them in 1848 with respect to the course of religious instruction, and should have communicated it to the schoolmasters and to the public, in such a way as to prevent any misapprehension on a point so seriously affecting the utility of these schools. That a complete course of English and commercial education should be provided for pupils of the royal free schools, suited to prepare boys of the middle class for civil and mercantile employments, even though they should refuse to receive the classical instruction which, if it be the primary, is not the exclusive trust of the foundation ; that the English and commercial education should be supplied in a department of the school specially devoted to this purpose, at a charge not exceeding 6*l.* a year for day scholars ; and that in the classical department the practical branches of a good English education ought also to receive great attention. That the right of free admission, being unlimited, is practically defeated ; that a minimum number of free places should be fixed by statute, with power to the proposed board, on the appointment of a new master, to increase the number ; that the free places should be open to all without distinction of locality or religion, the greater number being awarded by competition at a public examination, but some being reserved to be given on grounds of poverty, under regulations of the proposed board ; that free places should only be held on condition of good conduct and progress in the school ; and that the power of making regulations as to the tenure of the free places, the management of the examinations, and of the tests of good conduct and progress, should be intrusted to the proposed board. That inasmuch as the Queen's colleges of Belfast, Cork, and Galway, and the Queen's University in Ireland, have been established since the power of granting exhibitions out of the funds of the royal free schools was created, and as the persons receiving university education in Ireland appear likely to become more numerous, these exhibitions should be increased in number ; that they should be awarded at examinations to be held under the direction of the proposed board ; that the qualifications requisite for retaining them should extend to distinctions obtained either in Trinity College, Dublin, or any of the Queen's colleges in Ireland ; and that the exhibitions ought to be so regulated as to be open to pupils educated at the royal free schools without distinction. That when the funds admit of it, school scholarships should be established in connection with each of the royal free schools, to be given away by examination under regulations made by the proposed board. That increased powers should be conferred on the proposed board to enable them to apply the funds of the wealthier schools to the foundation of exhibitions and school scholarships and other objects, for the benefit of the less wealthy schools, so as to place the six royal free grammar schools in an efficient state, and to make them capable of promoting a complete system of intermediate education in the localities in

which they are placed. That the funds of the wealthier royal schools should, in accordance with the existing statutable powers, be applied to defray the cost of school buildings and repairs at Banagher, Cavan, and Raphoe. That the restriction of the free places, by a property qualification of the parents, and the limitation of them to the children of tenants on the royal school estate, and of inhabitants of the town of Armagh, is objectionable, and should be discontinued. That measures should be taken to diminish the amount of the arrears on the Armagh royal school estate, by making to the tenants on it the same abatements—amounting, in the whole, to one half-year's rent—that were made to those on the Dungannon estate; and that proceedings should be taken for the removal of such tenants as are unable to pay the residue of the rent due. That the royal school estate of Banagher should be revalued, with a view to its being re-let, the tenants not being charged for their recent improvements. That the existing arrears on the Cavan and Enniskillen Royal School estates should be reduced, where the circumstances of the tenant require it, on the plan recommended by the inspector of estates, and which consists in abandoning all arrears due for more than six years; in giving receipts in full for all rent accrued due within that period, on payment of 50*l.* per cent.; and in allowing those who are unable to pay up even the one-half of their arrears in money, to satisfy the debt by executing such improvements as may be marked out for them; all tenants, however, who do not choose to liquidate the arrears in one of these ways, to be removed from the estate. That the subdivision of farms on the Cavan and Enniskillen Royal School estates is an evil that requires to be remedied; and that the following plan, recommended by the inspector of estates, should be adopted—namely, that notice should be given that no tenant will be allowed, either by will or otherwise, to divide his holding, or permitted to transfer his interest without first having obtained the assent of the agent, whose duty it would be in such cases to make him assign his holding to the nearest tenant who might be able to manage it; and that these rules should be strictly enforced; that the funds of the Enniskillen Royal School, which have been applied towards the building of the Cavan schoolhouse, should not be considered as a loan, but as having been applied by the Commissioners of Education, under the powers conferred on them by the Act of 1822; and that the further debt, if any, for this schoolhouse, should, in like manner, be defrayed out of the funds of the other royal schools. That sufficient school accommodation should be provided at a convenient distance for the children of the tenantry on the Enniskillen estate. That the income which the Ecclesiastical Commissioners receive from the lands ascertained to have been intended for the founding a royal free school in the county of Tyrone, should be made over to the Clogher School, and secured to it as a permanent endowment. That steps should be taken to have a national school established at a convenient distance for the attendance of children on the townland of Derrytresk, forming part of the Dungannon Royal School estate. That in case the recommendation with reference to the Honourable the Irish Society, made by the commissioners who inquired into the Corporation of London in 1854, be adopted, the 300 acres shown to have been originally allotted for a free school or an equivalent for them, ought to be separated from the property of the Irish Society, and attached to the Foyle College, Londonderry, which should thenceforth be called the Londonderry Royal Free School. That the plan above recommended for the reduction of

arrears of rent on the Cavan and Enniskillen Royal School estates should be applied to the Raphoe Royal School estate.

Non-Exclusive Schools and Endowments of Private Foundation under the Commissioners of Education in Ireland.—That all the non-exclusive endowments of private foundation vested in, and properly coming within the jurisdiction of, the Commissioners of Education in Ireland, should be respectively transferred to, and placed under the superintendence of, the proposed Board of Commissioners of Endowed Schools. That the schools of Mullaghmore and Rathvilly, being non-exclusive schools, should be removed from the inspection of the Church Education Society.

Schools under the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland.—That the principle of the School Leasing Powers Act of 1810 should be extended so as to render all leases that have been or shall be made for national schools valid, without the assent of the bishop of the diocese; and that the parliamentary title conferred by the Act of 1824 should be extended to all such leases. That all the leases and endowments of national schools should be registered in the proposed office for the registration of school endowments.

Endowments for Schools under Commissioners of Charitable Donations and Bequests.—That it should be the primary duty of the Bequest Board to institute proceedings for recovering trust funds in all cases where such proceedings affect charities not under the care of the proposed Board of Commissioners of Endowed Schools. That it should be the primary duty of the proposed Board of Commissioners of Endowed Schools to proceed where the entire funds to be recovered would come under their care. That, as to funds falling under the jurisdiction of both boards, either board might take proceedings on the neglect by or with the consent of the other. That the Bequest Board should not retain any funds belonging to, or any control over, schools under the jurisdiction of the proposed Board of Commissioners of Endowed Schools, but should transfer the funds, as soon as realized, to the latter board.

Schools founded by the Association for Discountenancing Vice.—That all the authority or interest of the Association for Discountenancing Vice, in any non-exclusive endowments, should be transferred to the proposed Board of Commissioners of Endowed Schools. That all the leases, books, and papers in the possession or power of the Association for Discountenancing Vice, and relating to schools founded or assisted by them, should be deposited with the proposed Registrar of School Endowments, the trustees of each school being entitled to obtain copies of the leases when duly registered.

Schools founded by the Kildare-Place Society.—That all the authority or interest of this society in any non-exclusive endowments should be transferred to the proposed Board of Commissioners of Endowed Schools. That all the leases, books, and papers in the possession or power of the Kildare-Place Society, and relating to schools founded or assisted by them, should be deposited with the proposed Registrar of School Endowments.

Schools founded under the Commissioners of the Lord Lieutenant's School Building Fund.—That all schools founded or assisted by the Commissioners of the Lord Lieutenant's School Building Fund, and the endowments connected therewith, which are non-exclusive in their character, should be transferred to the proposed Board of Commissioners of Endowed Schools. That all the leases, books, and papers, now in the possession or power of

the gentleman who formerly acted as secretary to the Lord Lieutenant's School Fund Commissioners, should be deposited with the proposed Registrar of School Endowments, the trustees of each school being entitled to obtain copies of the leases when duly registered.

III.—RECOMMENDATIONS RELATING TO THE PROMOTION OF INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION.

That the establishment of a system of primary education by the Government has had the effect of greatly diminishing the resources which, though, no doubt, scanty and imperfect, formerly enabled the middle classes, to a certain extent, to provide a suitable education for their children; and there seems to be no prospect that the void thus left will be supplied by exertions of a purely voluntary nature. That the deficiencies admitted to exist in the system of intermediate education in Ireland cannot be supplied by a redistribution and different application of the educational endowments already in being. That the demand for intermediate education is so considerable, especially in the north of Ireland, that we are called on to suggest means of supplying it in accordance with principles that we can approve of, in those localities where it is required by the inhabitants, without providing a Government system of intermediate education in places where it might not be acceptable to the majority of the population. That this may be effected by the union of local funds, under the management of local trustees, with grants of public money. That the provision for local management would enable the trustees to make suitable regulations for religious instruction, provided that the school, as a condition of its partaking of the grant of public money, admit of the united education of persons of all religious persuasions; and provided, also, that the local managers be subject to the direct control of the proposed Board of Commissioners of Endowed Schools. That it is expedient to continue to hold competitive examinations for appointments in the public service, from time to time, in Dublin, but open to all your Majesty's subjects; and that this measure would constitute an effectual method of promoting intermediate education. That the educational tests best adapted for examinations for the public service would be, of all others, the most general in their character, and therefore those best calculated to direct the efforts of teachers to that course of mental discipline and moral training, the attainment of which constitutes the chief object of a liberal education. That with a view to the maintenance of this just standard of school education, and in order to avoid the serious evils which would arise from directing the attention and efforts of masters to what may be called the special requirements of the public business, it is very important that the same generality which has hitherto characterized the public competitive examinations should continue to prevail as the application of the system is extended to more numerous branches of your Majesty's service. That school scholarships, such as already exist at the Enniskillen Royal Free School, might with advantage be established in connection with all schools for intermediate education under the proposed board.

IV.—RECOMMENDATIONS RELATING TO THE SEVERAL CLASSES OF EXCLUSIVE SCHOOLS AND ENDOWMENTS PLACED UNDER CENTRAL MANAGEMENT.

Schools and Endowments under the Governors of Erasmus Smith's Schools.
—That the office of registrar should be separated from that of inspector of schools; and that the former should be a man of business, conversant with

public matters, acquainted with book-keeping, and able to check the agents' accounts and advise the board in relation to their affairs, without its being necessary to have a solicitor constantly present at its meetings. That the solicitor should only be employed with reference to the transaction of special legal business. That the office of paid treasurer might be advantageously revived, and separated from the office of chairman; and that it ought to be intrusted to some governor, whose duty it would be to attend the office regularly, in order to give directions to the registrar, the inspector of schools, and the agents. That the auditing of the accounts ought not to be intrusted to the chairman or any governor, but should be transferred to the proposed Board of Audit in Dublin. That the governors should carry out the directions of the founders as to religious instruction; that they should place their grammar schools on an efficient footing; that they should increase the value of the exhibitions attached to the schools; that they ought to draw up instructions for the masters as to the course of instruction, charges for day scholars and boarders, and other matters of importance; and to appoint a competent inspector to examine the grammar schools; and that they ought also themselves occasionally to visit the schools, in order to ascertain that the trusts of the charity and their own orders are carried out. That the governors should be empowered to make provision, by way of superannuation, for teachers who have faithfully served them. That the free places in the grammar schools should be defined in number and given away chiefly by examination, but partly on the grounds of poverty; and that the governors should make regulations on the subject. That the inspector of the English schools should be required to devote his entire time to the duties of his office; but that, inasmuch as the inspection of the four grammar schools would not be sufficient to occupy the whole time of one person, this function might be performed by some gentleman holding an educational position in the University of Dublin, with which the charity is connected. That the masters of the grammar schools should provide a course of English and mercantile education for boys who may refuse to learn classics. That these, as well as other grammar schools in Ireland, might be benefited by the application of the principle recently adopted in the University of Oxford with respect to middle-class education. That the governors ought not to leave it optional with the masters of the grammar schools to take charge of boarders on moderate terms, where suitable buildings have been erected for their reception. That the governors should endeavour to secure an increase of salary to their masters, by applying for contributions from the proprietors and clergymen connected with each district, and, if unable to obtain an adequate amount of extraneous support, ought rather to diminish the number of their English schools than reduce the salaries of their masters below the sum necessary to secure efficiency. That the governors should make provision for a better supply of school requisites. That the governors should convert some of their most efficient English schools into model schools, furnishing training for pupil-teachers. That statutable powers should be given in all cases of persons under disabilities, authorizing the conveyance of the present school sites to the governors, discharged of the clauses of forfeiture of the school premises now contained in their foundation deeds; and that powers should also be given, authorizing the charging of the estates of persons so situated, for the purchase of any school premises which the governors may determine to surrender. That the governors should place the grammar school pre-

mises in a suitable state of repair. That powers of granting building leases for long terms of years, with proper building covenants, should be conferred on the governors. That the agricultural leases granted by the governors should in future contain proper clauses restraining the tenants from sub-letting and exhausting the lands. That the principle of the Renewable Leasehold Conversion Act should be extended to building leases granted by the governors under the provisions of the 21st and 22nd Geo. III. c. 27, on part of the western estate, situate in the town of Galway.

Schools and Endowments under the Incorporated Society.—That the executive body of the incorporated society might be improved by having on it a paid member of the Committee, on whom a special responsibility would devolve, both as regards the visitation of schools and the inspection of estates. That the accounts of the society ought to be kept upon a system of book-keeping by double entry; and that the audit of the accounts should not be conducted by the members of the Committee or by clergymen, but transferred to the proposed Board of Audit in Dublin. That the rule limiting the competition for the free places to children educated in scriptural schools should be discontinued, and the competition be opened to all members of the United Church. That the day schools of the society should be subject to the inspection of a paid inspector, visiting without notice, and examining all the pupils. That the management of the endowments of Bishop Foy's school in Waterford should be transferred to the society. That all schools transferred to the society, in pursuance of our recommendations, should be made subject, so far as the intentions of the founders admit, to all the rules of the society, and especially to those which relate to the selection of candidates by competitive examination. That the expense of administering the newly transferred trusts should be defrayed out of the several trust funds. That changes having been introduced into the policy of the society which may render the sites of some of its schools no longer suited for the purposes for which they were intended, provision should be made, in the case of persons under disabilities, for relieving the society from restrictions in the deeds of foundation of the schools, or for charging the estates of such persons for the purpose of re-purchasing the school sites. That power should be granted to the board of the society to alter, from time to time, the localities of schools, for the support or assistance of which funds have been intrusted to the society, provided that for each of such changes the consent of the Lord Lieutenant and Privy Council be first obtained. That the society should be enabled to sell, with a parliamentary title, the small estates which it holds in different parts of the country, the adjoining proprietors being first offered the option of purchasing—the money arising from such sale to be held in trust to be reinvested in the purchase of other land. That the Celbridge Institution should be converted into a training establishment for schoolmistresses. That good maps should be made of all the properties of the incorporated society, the Ordnance survey and the tenement valuation affording the means of having such prepared at a moderate expense. That a tenantry school should be established on the townland of Rooskagh, forming part of the Ranelagh School estate.

Exclusive Schools and Endowments of Private Foundation, under the Commissioners of Education.—That schools for the exclusive education of members of the United Church, now under the Commissioners of Education in Ireland, should be transferred to the incorporated society, so as to be under

that society to the same extent and in the same manner as they are now under the Commissioners of Education. That the holdings out of lease on the Clonmel School estate should be re-valued at a moderate rate, not charging for any improvements recently made, and that the tenants should be called on to pay according to such valuation. That the purposes of the founder of the Preston charity would be best accomplished by uniting the two endowments of Navan and Ballyroan, and establishing one efficient school at Maryborough, which is the nearest large town to the estate.

Exclusive Schools formerly Endowed by means of Parliamentary Grants.—That power should be given by statute to the Association for Discouraging Vice, and persons holding property in trust for them, to transfer to any trustee or trustees approved of by the bishop of the diocese in which the endowment is situate, all their authority or interest in any exclusive endowment connected with the United Church. That power should be given by statute to the Kildare-Place Society, and to trustees for them, to transfer to any trustee or trustees approved of by the bishop of the diocese in which the endowment is situate, all their authority or interest in any exclusive endowment connected with the United Church.

V.—RECOMMENDATIONS RELATING TO CERTAIN GROUPS OF SCHOOLS EXISTING IN PARTICULAR LOCALITIES.

Schools of the Honourable the Irish Society.—That immediate steps should be taken in order that all the funds devoted to education under the charter of the Irish Society should assume a definite form, and be placed under a system of efficient management; and with this view, that the scattered funds of the society should be secured for, and concentrated on, a limited number of endowed schools, on this foundation, in the county of Londonderry. That, in the event of the recommendation of the Commissioners on the Corporation of London being carried into effect, and the Irish Society dissolved, the townlands of Rosnagallagh and Gransha should be set apart for a royal free school for the county of Londonderry. That in case the society shall not appoint local patrons and managers, and put their primary schools under the proposed Board of Endowed Schools, or under the Board of National Education, a local board ought to be established in the county, which should have the management of the schools supported from such funds of the society as may be allocated to educational purposes.

Colonel Robertson's Schools, County of Donegal.—That the management of the endowment should be transferred from the Robertson Committee to the care of the proposed Board of Commissioners of Endowed Schools. That power should be given to withhold payment of any portion of the Robertson endowment in parishes where a certain amount of local support is unprovided; and that the shares of the income so withheld should be allowed to accumulate, until they become sufficiently large to support efficient schools in their respective parishes.

VI.—RECOMMENDATIONS RELATING TO SCHOOLS AND ENDOWMENTS PLACED UNDER THE MANAGEMENT OF LOCAL TRUSTEES OR SPECIAL GOVERNORS.

Parochial Schools in the City of Dublin.—That the power for the trustees to sell trust funds invested in stock should exist, but ought to be placed under restrictions calculated to insure its prudent exercise; and that, with this view, the trust funds of the parochial schools in Dublin should be invested in the name of the Incorporated Society, jointly with the local

trustees; by which means the latter would be able to draw the dividends, but could not sell the principal without the consent of the society. That the trustees of parochial boarding-schools in Dublin should be enabled to convert them into day schools, so, however, as not to apply the funds in relieving the wealthier classes from the support of such schools, but preserving the entire of the funds for boarding, and applying them on the plan of the Protestant Orphan Society, in placing the children entitled to the benefit of them in families of their own religious persuasion, residing in localities where they can attend day schools approved of by their parents or guardians, and also enjoy the spiritual instruction and care of the clergy of the same denomination.

Other Schools in the City of Dublin.—That it is undesirable to have any portion of the endowments of schools invested in the shares or stock of commercial or banking companies, and that the trustees of the Female Orphan House, the Bethesda Orphan Girls' School, the Protestant Orphan Society, the Essex Street (East) School, and the Hibernian Marine School, should direct their attention to this subject. That the Protestant Orphan Society should take into consideration the propriety of applying the funds now employed in maintaining their boarding-school, Percy Place, wholly or in part, towards the further extension of their system of boarding in families; and, in case they determine on continuing their boarding establishment, that they should endeavour to improve the condition of the premises and house accommodation. That the course of instruction in the Blue Coat Hospital should be extended, so as to embrace navigation, drawing, experimental science, French, German, and book-keeping; that the charges of the establishment should be diminished, and that the educational staff, as well as the number of boys maintained on the charity, should be increased; that the governors should be authorized to allow maintenance in the form of scholarships to boys residing outside the hospital; that the school should be opened to a large number of day scholars, properly selected; that provision should be made for the admission of pupil-teachers, in order that the school may, to some extent, serve as a training-school for masters; and lastly, that the audit of the accounts should be transferred from the Board of Audit in London to the Board of Audit proposed to be established in Dublin. That the school premises of the National Schools, Essex Street West, should be put into a proper state of repair. That the local patron of the National Boys' School, Meath Street, should endeavour to separate the school endowment from funds devoted to other purposes, which are at present mixed with the former. That better school accommodation, and a larger supply of school requisites, should be provided for the National Ragged Schools, West Park Street. That the trustees of the Presbyterian Boys' School, Upper Ormond Quay, should endeavour to provide school premises of a better and more healthy character.

Schools and Endowments in Ireland generally, under the management of local Trustees or special Governors.—That the management of the Clongesh School, county of Longford, and the Ballintoy School, county of Antrim, should be transferred to the proposed Board of Commissioners of Endowed Schools. That the Commissioners of Education should institute inquiries respecting the Callan and Knocktopher schools, in the county of Kilkenny, with a view to ascertain whether the trustees are not legally responsible for the losses that have occurred in relation to these endowments. That the munificent sum raised in Belfast by private exertion, and expended in

founding the Royal Academical Institution, should be considered as a local contribution, giving the town a claim to a liberal grant of public money in any plan for the promotion of intermediate education. That Bishop Foy's School should be transferred from the neighbourhood of the city of Waterford to the city itself, and converted into a day school, with scholarships for orphans and poor children; and that the Acts of Parliament by which the school is governed should be repealed, and the entire management of the school transferred to the Incorporated Society with power to effect the above changes in the constitution of the school. That good maps should be provided, and a regular valuation made of the property attached to Bishop Foy's School; that the tenants upon it should be encouraged and assisted to provide better houses; and that the portion of the arrears of rent which are of long standing should be cleared off by forgiving part and requiring the tenants to execute improvements in discharge of the residue. That with respect to the Limerick Charity Blue School, steps should be taken to have two inhabitants of Limerick, from time to time, appointed as trustees in place of the mayor and recorder, who have ceased to act. That the trustees of the Hevey Endowment should endeavour to secure the benefit of the provisions of the 18th and 19th Vict. c. 39, s. vi., in relation to the site of the intended seminary, and that of the Presentation Convent National School. That steps should be taken with reference to the Rahaghy School, county of Tyrone, to ascertain the site originally granted, and to have it marked out with boundaries distinguishing it from the surrounding land. That Swords Borough School has not been managed with a due regard to the feelings and circumstances of the persons interested in it; that we cannot express our approval of the manner in which the duties of local superintendence have been performed; that the benefits of the charity being intended to be conferred without religious distinction, the charity ought not to be intrusted to the administration of an exclusive board, especially one on which the most numerous class of the inhabitants are entirely unrepresented; that the statutable provisions constituting the board of governors of Swords Borough School should be repealed, and the charter rescinded, and that the funds and management of the charity should be transferred to the proposed Board of Commissioners of Endowed Schools. That the trustees of the estates of Wilson's Hospital and Morgan's Schools should require the agent to bring down his accounts so as to show the balance due on foot both of receipts and expenditure, on the last day up to which the account is rendered; that in addition to rendering his annual account, the agent's cash account should be balanced monthly and laid before the trustees, together with the former; and that the audit of accounts should be conducted by the proposed Board of Audit. That the original scheme of the Castlederg Boys' School, county of Tyrone, should be varied as regards apprenticing to trades and the boarding department; that the girls' school should be discontinued, and the entire funds applied to the support of a boys' school; and that the equitable jurisdiction before recommended to be conferred on the assistant-barrister might be advantageously applied for the purpose of sanctioning the above alterations. That the recommendation we have already made with reference to cases where the public money has been expended on the faith of promises to grant sites, has an especial application to the Cahircnlish Girls', the Kilfinane Parochial, the Kishequirk National Boys', and the Lisnagry National Girls' schools, all situate in the county of Limerick. That the exercise of

the equitable jurisdiction which we have recommended should be conferred on the assistant-barrister in relation to small endowments, might be beneficially employed for the appointment of new trustees for the Moate Boys' School, county of Fermanagh. That the measure which we have recommended for authorizing trustees to apply the endowments of charity boarding schools to a system of boarding in families would be very beneficial in relation to Rainey's Charity School, county of Londonderry. This report was signed by the Marquis of Kildare, Dr. Charles Graves, Dr. Robert Andrews, and Mr. W. Neilson Hancock; but Mr. Archibald John Stephens dissented from it.

No. CI.—NATIONAL EDUCATION (IRELAND).

The Twenty-fourth Report of the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland for the Year 1857.

On the 31st December, 1856, there were 5,245 schools in operation, which had on their rolls, for the half-year ended that date, 560,134 children; with an average daily attendance, for the same period, of 254,011 children. At the close of the year 1857, the number of schools in operation was 5,337, being an increase in the schools in operation of 92, for the year 1857, as compared with the year 1856, and an average daily attendance of 268,397 children for the same period, while the average number of children on the rolls, for the year, was 514,445. The increase in the average daily attendance of the year 1857 over that for the year 1856 amounts to 14,386 children, and which implies a corresponding increase of some 26,000 or 28,000 children in the average number on the rolls. The total number of distinct pupils at any time on the rolls, for the twelve months ended the 31st December, 1857, was 776,473.

Grants were made at various times, amounting to 8,074*l.* 3*s.* 2*d.*, towards the erection of 48 ordinary national school-houses, which will contain in the whole 71 separate school-rooms. In addition to the ordinary national schools not yet built, there are also in course of erection 9 model school-houses of various kinds, containing in the whole 20 school-rooms. When these 57 buildings shall have been completed, they will afford accommodation to 8,755 additional children. Of the above 48 grants, 23 were awarded during the year 1857, involving liabilities to the amount of 2,788*l.* 18*s.* 4*d.*

The number of schools struck off during the year 1857 was 130; the number of schools in the "suspended list," at the close of the year, was 56, of which number 30 were suspended during the year 1857; these, however, may hereafter be re-opened; and 264 schools were added to the list. The entire number of schools on our rolls on the 31st December, 1857, was 5,484, including those in operation, those suspended, and those towards the building of which we have promised aid.

For the year 1857 there were 5,337 schools in operation, on the rolls of which the average number of children was 514,445, and the total number of distinct pupils appearing on the same was 776,473. Taking the total number of distinct pupils appearing at any time on the rolls, for the year 1857, as 776,473, there would be for the 5,337 schools in operation an average for each of 145·48; while if we take the average number on the rolls of the same 5,337 schools, the average will be 96·39 children.

Of the 264 schools added to the list in 1857, 242 are under the manage-

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248 C.—ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS AND EDUCATION.

ment of 196 individuals, many of them having more than one school under their care. The following is the number of patrons of each religious denomination:—Church of England—clerical, 9; lay, 23; Presbyterian—clerical, 12; lay, 8; Protestant Dissenters—lay, 2; Roman Catholic—clerical, 196; lay, 11. Total Protestants of all persuasions, clerical and lay, 54; total Roman Catholic, clerical and lay, 207. The remaining 22 cases—9 of which were district model schools, 8 minor model schools, 2 workhouse schools, and 3 ordinary national schools—were added upon joint applications from persons of different religious denominations. There were 13 vested schools opened, and 5 suspended schools re-opened during the year. These are included in the 5,337 schools in operation on the 31st December, 1857.

At the termination of the year 1857, there were on the list, vested either in trustees, or in the board, 1,127 school-houses, containing 1,674 rooms, accommodating distinct schools. The number of non-vested schools was 3,781, several of which, as in cases of vested schools, were held under the same roof. The number of schools vested in trustees, on the 31st December, was 969. In addition, there were 614 (including 148 assigned) vested in us in our corporate capacity, and 91 schools for which we held bonds for the observance of our rules. There were also 29 schools, towards which we had made building grants, the leases for which were not then executed. During the year 1857 grants were made towards the repairs of schools vested in the Commissioners, amounting to 351*l.* 4*s.* 1*d.*

The total amount of salaries, premiums, and gratuities paid, in 1857, to the teachers, &c., was 126,413*l.* 13*s.* 2*d.*, being an increase over the amount paid in the year 1856 of 8,191*l.* 7*s.* 4*d.* The amount paid to senior and junior monitors for the year 1857 was 4,361*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.* The scale for senior monitors would be the 1st year, 5*l.*; 2nd year, 6*l.*; 3rd year, 8*l.*; 4th year, 10*l.*; and for junior monitors, 1st year, 2*l.*; 2nd year, 3*l.*; 3rd year, 4*l.*

The amount received for books and school requisites sold at reduced prices to national schools, in the year 1856, was 8,549*l.* 8*s.* 11*d.*; in 1857 the amount received was 8,960*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.*, being an increase, as compared with the previous year, of 410*l.* 18*s.* 7*d.* The number of orders for books for national schools received in 1857 was 9,062. The number of grants was 1,680. In addition to the books sold by us to the national schools, the sales made by her Majesty's stationery office for the use of the public amounted to 12,595*l.* 18*s.* 10*d.* The sum expended in the year 1857, in premiums for the encouragement of cleanliness and good order, amounted to 1,063*l.* The number of pupils on the rolls of our model schools, in Marlborough Street, upon the 31st December, 1857, was—males, 639; females, 478; infants, 408; making a total of 1,525.

There were trained during the year, and supported at the public expense, 288 national teachers, of whom 197 were males, and 91 females, besides 55 trained teachers not connected with national schools, who supported themselves during their attendance at the model schools. Of the 288 teachers of national schools trained during the year, 25 were of the Established Church, 51 were Presbyterians, 1 of another denomination of Protestant Dissenters, and 211 Roman Catholics. The total number of male and female teachers trained from the commencement of our proceedings to the 31st December, 1857, is 4,870, exclusive of those teachers who, at the time of their training, were unconnected with national schools.

JOINT STOCK COMPANIES.

Returns of the Names of all Companies registered under the Joint Stock Companies Act (1856), with limited liability, up to the 31st day of March, 1858. (Mr. Ackroyd.) 8th June, 1858. (324.)

IN ENGLAND, there were registered of companies for purposes connected with the employment of money, 36, 4 old and 32 new, viz., 3 advance, 4 discount, 2 loan, 6 loan and discount, 4 advance and deposit, 2 deposit and loan, 2 investment, 8 investment and loan, 3 money, and 2 reversionary.

Companies for the Construction and Management of Public Works.—206, 66 old and 140 new, viz., 129 gas, 1 patent gas, 1 water gas, 1 olefiant gas, 2 gas apparatus, 2 gas and water, 1 irrigation, 1 graving dock, 1 cemetery, 3 tramway, 1 permanent way, 23 water, 24 railway, 5 waggon, and 11 telegraph.

Companies for Manufacturing Articles of Consumption or Use.—135, 23 old and 112 new, viz., 1 fire-arms, 2 boot and shoe-making, 1 alkali, 4 distilling, 1 bottle envelope, 1 carpet, 1 cement, 5 pottery, 4 cotton spinning, 1 chocolate, 1 chronometer, 9 brewery, 8 brick and tile, 2 candle, 1 electric power, 2 cocoa fibre, 1 coal preserving, 1 corn grinding, 2 flax spinning, 3 fibres, 3 spinning, 1 cooperage, 1 felt, 1 flax dressing, 2 manure, 4 fuel, 3 soap, 1 sugar refining, 1 sacking, 3 cork cutting, 8 metal working, 3 crape and silk, 1 milk, 1 colour, 3 glass, 1 gunpowder, 1 vinegar, 1 waterproofing, 1 hosiery, 3 leather, 14 manure, 1 threshing corn, 2 oil crushing, 1 paint, 5 paper-making, 1 paper-staining, 1 starch, 2 soda-water, 2 tanning, 1 timber building, 3 sewing, 1 slab, 1 type-founding, 1 vitreo enamel, 1 whalebone, 2 wheel.

Companies for Working Mines, Quarries, &c.—175, 32 old and 143 new, viz., 42 mining in general, 16 copper mining, 8 lead and copper mining, 1 copper and sulphur mining, 1 copper lead and zinc mining, 1 lead and coal mining, 1 copper, silver lead, and zinc mining, 1 malachite, 21 lead mining, 1 silver, lead, and copper mining, 10 iron mining, 4 silver lead, 1 tin mining, 4 iron and coal mining, 5 mineral, 1 coal and iron mining, 5 mining and smelting, 5 gold mining, 1 smelting, 29 coal mining, 1 granite quarrying, 4 stone quarrying, and 12 slate quarrying.

Companies for Carrying on Trade or Business.—84, 15 old and 69 new, viz., 3 agency, 4 auctioneers, 12 corn-dealers, 1 cartage, 1 cigar, 1 cotton, 2 conveyance, 2 dining-room, 1 dealers in agricultural implements, 1 apothecaries, 4 bakers, 1 education, 5 fishing, 1 hide dealing, 5 hotel, 1 ice, 3 ironware, 1 medicine, 4 metal, 2 tailors, 1 patents working, 2 pawn-brokers, 1 grocers, 1 sack lending, 1 stone merchants, 1 tea merchants, 2 undertakers, 4 provision dealers, 5 coal merchants, 2 carriers, 1 Ramenea's chimney-sweeping patent, 1 stud farm, 1 trading, 1 warehouseman, and 5 wine merchants.

Companies for Building and for the Use and Occupation of Land.—28, 9 old and 19 new, viz., 16 building and 12 land.

Companies for the Erection and Use of Buildings of a Public or Commercial Character.—65, 16 old and 49 new, viz., 2 town-hall, 31 market, 9 bath, 1 scientific, 11 public buildings, 4 buildings for educational purposes, 1 temperance hall, 3 public buildings, 1 hospital, 1 theatre, and 1 warehouse.

Companies connected with the Building and Employment of Shipping.—50, 13 old and 37 new, viz., 9 shipping, 4 steam ferry, 1 steam fishery, 32 packet and steam-ships, and 4 steam towing.

Companies for Publishing and Printing.—18, 3 old and 15 new.

Miscellaneous Companies.—8.

In SCOTLAND, there were registered 32 companies, 3 old and 29 new.

In IRELAND, there were registered 49 companies, 20 old and 29 new.

ARMY.

Copy of an Account of the Receipts and Expenditure for Army Services, including Militia Commissariat and Ordnance, for the Year ending 31st March, 1857. 18th June, 1858. (346.)

THE total army expenditure for the year ended 31st March, 1857, amounted to 21,116,356*l.* 3*s.* 1*d.* The grant for the same year was 20,478,034*l.*, which, with a proportion of a sum of 8,000,000*l.* voted to provide for any additional expenses consequent upon the Russian war, 638,322*l.* 3*s.* 1*d.*, made 21,116,356*l.* 3*s.* 1*d.*

NAVAL PRIZE MONEY.

An Account of the Receipt and Expenditure of Naval Prize, Bounty, Salvage, and other Money, between the 1st April, 1857, and 31st March, 1858. 20th July, 1858. (448.)

THE receipt on account of naval prizes, bounty, &c., including captures made under the Prize Act, "Russia," amounted to 67,063*l.* 4*s.* 1*d.*, and the expenditure, including slave and tonnage bounty, salvage services, bounty for destruction of pirates, 35,483*l.* 15*s.* 5*d.*, leaving a balance of 31,579*l.* 18*s.* 8*d.*

NAVAL RECEIPT AND EXPENDITURE.

Copy of an Account of the Naval Receipt and Expenditure for the Year ended the 31st March, 1857. 5th February, 1858. (37.)

THE expenditure for the year amounted to 14,664,513*l.* 13*s.* 3*d.*, and the grants, including supplementary estimates, were 16,568,614*l.*, leaving 1,904,100*l.* 6*s.* 9*d.* balance of votes unappropriated.

TREASURY CHEST.

An Account showing all the Sums which have been received into the Treasury Chest, and which have been paid out of the same between the 1st April, 1856, and 31st March, 1857, and of the Assets and Liabilities of the Chest on the latter day. 6th May, 1858. (263.)

On the 1st April, 1856, there was a cash balance in the several Treasuries abroad of 745,327*l.* 3*s.* 11½*d.* During the year 1856–7 there were raised by treasury bills and other means, 19,114,137*l.* 1*s.* 4*d.*, making a total of 19,859,464*l.* 5*s.* 3½*d.* The payments amounted to 18,975,075*l.* 18*s.* 3½*d.*, leaving a balance in hand of 884,388*l.* 7*s.* 2½*d.* The liabilities of the treasury chest amounted to 3,662,464*l.* 16*s.* 7½*d.*, and the assets to 4,993,165*l.* 19*s.* 10½*d.*, leaving a surplus of assets available for carrying on the service of the treasury chest of 1,330,701*l.* 3*s.* 3½*d.*

EXCHEQUER.

An Account of all Moneys received during the Year ended 31st March, 1858, to the Account of H. M.'s Exchequer at the Bank of England and of Ireland under the respective heads of Public Revenue; the Amount of all Royal Orders and Treasury Warrants received, and of the Credits and Transfers made by the Comptroller-General of the Exchequer; the Payments by the Bank of England; and the Balance remaining to the Account of the Exchequer at each Bank on the 31st March, 1858. 6th May, 1858. (93.)

THE balance of available income remaining to the account of the Comptroller-General of the Exchequer was, Great Britain, 7,043,295*l.* 19*s.* 11*d.*; Ireland, 1,635,284*l.* 8*s.* 1*d.*: total, 8,678,580*l.* 8*s.* 0*d.* Receipt during the year, Great Britain, 65,556,761*l.* 13*s.* 10*d.*; Ireland, 6,214,945*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.*: total, 71,771,707*l.* Total, 80,450,287*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* The Exchequer credits issued at the Bank of England and transfers at the Bank of Ireland amounted to 73,789,276*l.* 5*s.* 7*d.*, leaving a balance of income at the Bank of England, on the 31st March, 1858, of 5,517,532*l.* 4*s.* 7*d.*, and at the Bank of Ireland of 1,143,479*l.* 3*s.* 2*d.* There was also a balance of credits at the Bank of England of 1,202,707*l.* 13*s.* 7*d.*, making a total balance on the 31st March, 1858, of 6,720,239*l.* 18*s.* 2*d.*

LOAN SOCIETIES.

Abstract of Accounts of Loan Societies in England and Wales to 31st December, 1857, by John Tidd Pratt, the Barrister appointed to Certify the Rules of Savings Banks. 24th March, 1858. (156.)

THE amount advanced and paid by depositors or shareholders in 1857 was 144,359*l.* 19*s.* 0*d.*; the sum in borrowers' hands, 323,221*l.* 18*s.* 0*d.*; and the amount circulated in the year, 729,543*l.* 10*s.* 6*d.* There were 154,606 applications for loan, and loans were granted to 121,810 borrowers.

SILVER (CHINA).

Copies of Correspondence received at the Colonial Office and the Foreign Office upon the Subject of the Supply of Silver in the Markets of China, the Rates of Exchange at Shanghai and Canton, and in reference to Proposals for remedying the Inconveniences experienced from the high Rate of Exchange at Shanghai, and Treasury Minutes having reference thereto. (Mr. Wilson.) 18th May, 1858. (287.)

On the 24th January, 1852, Mr. Addington, of the Foreign Office, communicated to the Chancellor of the Exchequer letters from Sir S. G. Bonham on the subject of the loss sustained by the consular officers at Shanghai and by the public, in consequence of the existing arrangements for supplying the consulate at that port with funds. In no part of China were British coins of gold or silver current at their European value. They must be either sold to the Chinese as so much bullion for melting, or to some purchaser who will return them to Hong Kong. Mexican dollars were not worth more than 88 cents in exchange for the Spanish dollar, the only currency of the place. Rupees were only exchangeable at the rate of 240 per 100 dollars, and sovereigns at 3 dollars 84 cents; thus entailing a discount, varying from seven to twenty per cent. The only remedy suggested for such a state of things was that the Commissariat Office at Hong Kong should send to the consular officers Spanish dollars, which constituted the principal medium of exchange at the Chinese ports. On the 27th April, 1852, a Treasury minute was passed, setting forth the reason against supplying the British consulates in China with Spanish dollars from Hong Kong, and suggesting as the only means of avoiding the inconvenience which attended the transmission of specie, that the consuls should draw bills on the commissariat at par. The following observations detail the principles on which foreign coins are rated for circulation at Hong Kong concurrently with British money, and the operation of the exchanges in altering the relative value of the precious metals :—

It is generally admitted that the quantity of precious metal which is contained in a coin affords the only sound test by which its value in exchange can be estimated. It is by this principle that the dealings between civilized communities are governed, and the rates of exchange calculated, as expressed in the different denominations of the coins of the countries which have dealings with each other. When the exchange has to be adjusted between two countries having the same metal for their standard of value, the par of exchange—or, in other terms, the relative value of their coins—can be readily ascertained; but when the standard of one consists of gold and the other of silver, the true par in their respective currencies must, to a certain extent, be subject for conjecture, as the relative value of the precious metals is liable to fluctuation, and it is impossible to define accurately at any one time how much in the nominal premium of the coins of one country over those of another, consisting of different metals, may be owing to causes arising from the balance of trade, or to variations from other causes, in the mercantile value of the precious metals themselves. The same observation applies to

countries, the mint laws of which admit a double standard of value. It is impossible in such a case to adjust the proportions of the precious metals to the gold and silver coins, in such a manner as to prevent fluctuations in their relative value.

In regard to the British colonies, it has generally been considered advisable, with the view of affording facility for the adjustment of their transactions with neighbouring countries with which they have commercial intercourse, that legal currency should be given to the coins in use in those countries; and it is necessary, with this view, to assign fixed rates at which those coins should be received in payment of sterling sums, in which denomination of account the pay of the troops and civil functionaries must be computed.

When the coins to be so rated are silver, a difficulty arises in assigning to them a relative valuation to the gold coins which form the standard of value in this country, similar to that which exists in countries which have double standards of value. It would be impossible to adopt any system for this purpose founded on the quotations of the mercantile exchanges, because they are liable to constant fluctuations; and the only safe principle which can be recognized is that which has been generally adopted in the proclamations issued for the colonies—viz., a commutation based on the average value which the precious metals bear to each other in the general market of the world. For a long series of years this average has been in the proportion of 15·73 of silver to 1 of gold, which is equivalent to a price of about 5s. an ounce for standard silver. On this basis the dollars of Spain, Mexico, and the South American States, which are generally of the same intrinsic value, have been rated at 4s. 2d., or fifty 240ths of a pound sterling, for circulation in the British colonies, including Hong Kong.

Although during the last forty years the relative value of silver has seldom deviated to any considerable extent from this mean price, and British money has circulated concurrently with dollars at the above rate, it is obvious that, with the variations of the mercantile exchanges, the relative value of dollars and British sterling money must be liable to fluctuations; and the premium or discount which the sovereign bears in the money market of China will mark the state of the exchange in favour of or against this country.

My Lords are ready to admit that the arbitrary value given to the Spanish dollar in China, owing to the prejudices of the people in favour of that coin, creates an exception to the principle above laid down; but the circumstances attending the circulation of that coin in China demonstrate the extreme difficulty of dealing with cases which involve a departure from the general laws regarding the valuation of money.

From the observations in the letters of the consuls of Shanghai and Amoy, it would seem that those officers are under the impression that Spanish dollars, such as are used in China, can readily be obtained like other coins. This is not the case. The dollars which are preferred by the Chinese are not the coins which are now issued from the Spanish mint, but certain coins of past reigns, commonly known by the name of pillar dollars; and even these are not equally valued, the dollars of the coinage of Charles IV. bearing a premium over those of Ferdinand.

These coins, like all others, must be subject to loss and deterioration by wear, but there are no legitimate means of supplying new ones by fresh issues. They bear a value in exchange, not estimated by their intrinsic

contents of silver, but by their scarceness ; and this value must be subject to great fluctuations, because, as the amount in circulation cannot vary with the varying demands for money, the same amount must, at different times, be the medium for the exchange of a greater or less amount of commodities. There is, in fact, no principle on which the exchangeable value of these coins in China can be accurately ascertained, but it is in some measure denoted by the discount which other coins bear from time to time when estimated by them.

It is clear, that as long as this arbitrary value is given to the Spanish pillar dollar, it will not be paid into the commissariat chest at Hong Kong at the same rate as other coins. In order to obtain them, it would be necessary to pay a premium for them, and that premium would be enhanced by the new demand.

My Lords may at the same time observe, that the British consuls in China, in estimating the loss which they have unquestionably of late suffered from the state of the exchange, are not correct in referring to the ordinary discount on Mexican compared with Spanish dollars as entailing upon them an actual loss. This nominal discount, in fact, marks the value in exchange which the pillar dollar bears above its intrinsic value. If the latter dollar were supplied to the consuls at the rate of 4s. 2d., they would be gainers by the amount of the ordinary discount on the Mexican dollar.

On the 28th of September, 1852, Mr. Addington communicated to the Treasury a despatch of her Majesty's plenipotentiary in China respecting a plan by which he hoped to meet the inconvenience arising out of the system of making remittances to her Majesty's consuls in China, the plan consisting in obtaining satisfactory letters of credit at Hong Kong, instead of sending sovereigns or Mexican dollars to be sold at a great sacrifice. The Treasury passed a minute that there was no objection to such arrangement. The mode in which the expenses of the consular service in China are provided differed from the ordinary practice. The salaries of consuls in other parts of the world are paid in this country to persons to whom the consuls may have granted powers of attorney, authorizing them to receive whatever moneys may be payable to them on the public account; a life certificate being sent from the Foreign Office to the Paymaster-General's office as soon after the expiration of each quarter as it is received for each consul, and the consuls may obtain their money regularly through their attorney in this country. But with the China consulates it is otherwise ordained. A commissariat chest being established at Hong Kong, and the facilities for obtaining money from England by persons residing in the ports of China being uncertain, it was thought most convenient, both for public and for private interests, when the consular appointments were first made, that the salaries of the consuls should be obtained from the commissariat chest, and should be remitted, under the direction of the chief superintendent, to the parties to whom they were payable. These circumstances were embodied in a despatch from the Earl of Malmesbury to Sir George Bonham, and he was directed to send, every year, a certificate showing the actual

loss which may have been sustained by the consuls in the course of the year in consequence of the depreciation of coin issued to them from the commissariat chest at Hong Kong, in payment of their salaries.

In August, 1853, the Secretary of the Foreign Office communicated to the Treasury that Sir George Bonham had authorized the consular public servants at Shanghai being paid the amount of their salaries according to the currency of that place, and that Lord Clarendon had signified to Sir George Bonham his approval of that course. The Treasury concurred in the expediency of such a measure, but stated that, although the plan adopted in paying the consuls in China may be open to revision or alteration, so long as the agency of the commissariat department was employed for the remittance of coins to Shanghai for the consular service, it would be necessary to carry on the transactions by the remittance of such coins as the commissariat officers were enabled to obtain by negotiation of their bills on the Treasury. In September, 1853, the Secretary of the Foreign Office again communicated despatches from Sir George Bonham on the subject of the loss occasioned to her Majesty's consular servants in China by the mode of paying their salaries, and stating his opinion that the only mode by which such evil can be remedied was to allow the consuls to draw bills on England; the bills to be cashed in China, in Spanish dollars, charging to her Majesty's Government any loss that may thereby arise. The British consul at Ningpo reported that, on the 1st of April, 1852, his salary for the first quarter was paid to him in 100 sovereigns and 102½ Mexican dollars. At that period, from Chinese, he could only obtain for a sovereign three and a half Spanish dollars, and Mexican dollars were then at a discount of eight per cent. for Spanish dollars. Rather than incur the loss, he sent his 100 sovereigns to Shanghai for transmission to England. Had he been in want of money at the time, he would have been obliged to dispose of them at three and a half dollars. In consequence of these renewed representations, another Treasury minute was made, in which, after considering the remedy suggested by Sir George Bonham, the Treasury proposed that an approximation be made to the real value of exchange of the pillar dollar, by comparing it according to the quoted prices with sycee silver, which, being the medium in which Government duties are levied in China, and large transactions adjusted by the traders of that country, must be the ultimate standard of value by which the exchanges between England and China are governed.

On the 5th July, 1854, the secretary of the Foreign Office communicated a despatch from Sir John Bowring, reporting the establishment of a Chinese Mint at Canton, for the coinage of the Carolus dollar. The intrinsic value was exactly the same as that of the genuine Spanish dollar; but while the genuine Spanish bore a premium of 18 per cent., the imitation bore a premium of only 10 per cent., making a difference of 8 per cent. in favour of the genuine coin. The Treasury had this coin assayed at the mint, and the report was that the value of the specimen dollar was stated to be exactly

4s. 2d., silver being at 60d. per ounce standard, which would have to be increased by 1-60th, or 0·83d. for every penny per ounce above 60d. on the market price of standard silver; so that at the market price of 61½d. their average value was 51·24d., or almost exactly 4s. 3½d. In January, 1855, the Foreign Secretary communicated a despatch from Sir John Bowring, announcing that the attempt to introduce the imitation Carolus dollars had failed, and that at Shanghai they were at a discount of 30 per cent. In January, 1855, Sir John Bowring sent a certificate of British merchants of Shanghai, showing that the average rate of exchange for Mexican dollars, from 31st December, 1853, to the 30th December, 1854, had not been less than 25 per cent. discount for Shanghai currency.

On the 11th September, 1855, the secretary of the Foreign Office sent to the Treasury a copy of a despatch from Her Majesty's plenipotentiary in China, again complaining of the serious loss occasioned by the high premium which Spanish dollars bore at Shanghai over Mexican dollars, in which coins the salaries of Her Majesty's consuls were paid. Lord Clarendon submitted to the Treasury whether Her Majesty's consular officers in China might not be paid in the local currency of the ports at the rate of 4s. 2d. a dollar, and in that case, in order to provide for the regularity of such payments, Her Majesty's consul at Shanghai might be instructed to draw on the Lords Commissioners of the Treasury for the amount of sterling money required to supply a sufficient number of Shanghai dollars at 4s. 2d. each, while Her Majesty's consul at Canton, or Her Majesty's plenipotentiary at Hong Kong, might be instructed to draw in a similar manner for the amount required for the southern ports.

On the 26th October, 1855, Lord Wodehouse communicated to the Treasury a despatch from China, on the subject of a dispute between the Taoutae of Shanghai and the United States consul there, regarding the regulation of the currency and other questions. In consequence of the intervention of the United States consul, a proclamation was issued on the 23rd July, 1855, at Shanghai, by which it was provided that a varitey of other silver coins current in those parts shall be received for customs' duties at a value fixed in relation to the quantity of pure silver which they contain compared with the Carolus dollar. Upon the receipt of this despatch, the Treasury passed a minute suggesting that no steps should be taken on the subject of the consular salaries in China until the effects of this measure shall have been ascertained. Soon after, another proclamation was issued by the Taoutae of Shanghai, by which, from the 6th of February, 1856, all dollars were to be received at their real weight and intrinsic value. This reform was objected to by many merchants who profited by the fluctuations of currency and the fictitious value of certain coins; but in the opinion of Sir John Bowring the reference of current coins to an intrinsic and ascertainable value was in itself an important object to accomplish, and the mandarins should be assisted in their attempts to accomplish that object.

In March, 1856, Sir John Bowring proposed to the Treasury the

establishment of a mint in Hong Kong for the coinage of a British dollar with its decimal divisions. Such dollar would be established as the groundwork of currency and accountancy, and might become in time the circulating medium for the enormous commercial operations of these vast dominions. The universality of the dollar in eastern Asia, in the whole of America, in the Pacific, and, indeed, over the widest portion of the whole commercial field, gives to the suggestion a magnitude and an importance which will only grow and widen on examination. Sir John Bowring was of opinion that an alloy of 10 in the 100, that is, a standard of 90, would be most desirable. The Treasury, however, in the minute passed in July, 1856, observed that they were not satisfied that the prejudices or interested views which have led to the preference of the Carolus over the Mexican dollars at Shanghai would be less likely to operate if British dollars were to be offered as a substitute; and they were not prepared to incur the expense of setting up a local mint for the purpose of a doubtful experiment. In support of such a proposal, Sir John Bowring transmitted a requisition of the American merchants at Shanghai highly approving of the proposed new British dollar. They suggested that it be of the same weight and purity as the Carolus dollar, in order not to derange accounts; that it be so well cut as to defy the imitation of Chinese coiners, that the people may not fear counterfeit; and that it bear on one side an English inscription which will secure it the respect of a people cognisant of the integrity of English money, and on the other side an inscription in Chinese stating its weight and value. The British Chamber of Commerce of Shanghai also supported Sir John Bowring's proposal, thinking that under proper surveillance, and with undoubted guarantees for the weight and purity of the coin produced, such an undertaking would be of the greatest advantage to the trade of China generally. In February, 1858, another Treasury minute on the subject was passed, objecting to Sir John Bowring's proposal for establishing a mint at Hong Kong, and showing that the dollar could not be coined at a less cost than the Mexican dollar. In their opinion the evil from which the merchants of Shanghai suffered might be solved by an united effort to adopt the Mexican dollar in place of the obsolete Carolus dollar as the recognized measure of value and medium of exchange.

WHEAT, &c.

Return of the Quantities of Wheat, Flour, and other Breadstuffs, and of Grain other than Wheat, including Indian Corn, imported into the Country during the Year 1847, &c. (Mr. Blakemore.) 24th June, 1858. (335.)

In the year 1857 there were imported of corn and grain, 8,545,182 quarters, viz. 3,437,957 qrs. wheat, 1,701,470 qrs. barley, 1,710,299 qrs. oats, 76,048 qrs. rye, 159,899 qrs. pease, 305,775 qrs. beans, 1,150,783 qrs. Indian corn, 188 qrs. buckwheat, and 2,763 qrs. beer or bigg. There were

also imported in the year 2,184,176 cwt. of meal and flour, principally wheat meal and flour. The imports of corn and grain were from the following countries: 1,699,469 qrs. from Prussia, 1,068,617 qrs. grain and 1,464,867 cwt. of meal and flour from the United States, 1,999,113 qrs. grain from Russia, 984,237 qrs. from Denmark, 565,109 qrs. from Hanse Town, 421,354 qrs. from Egypt, and smaller quantities from other countries. The six weeks averages of wheat were highest on the week ending 25th July, 1857, viz., 62s. 6d.; and lowest in the week ending 26th December, 1857. The average of barley was highest in the week ending 11th April, 1857, 46s. 5d., and lowest in the week ending 26th December, 1857, 37s. 1d. The average prices of oats were highest in the weeks ending the 22nd and 29th August, and lowest in the week ending 7th March. During the year there were imported into Great Britain 280,848 cattle, sheep, and other sorts, the greater part from Holland, the United States, Spain, &c.

REVENUE (IRELAND).

Accounts of Revenue and Expenditure, Duties of Customs, Excise, Stamps, and Postage, &c. (Sir Robert Ferguson.) 7th June, 1858. (466.)

THE net produce of the revenue of Ireland paid into the Exchequer in the year ended 31st December, 1857, amounted to 6,895,847*l.* 8*s.* 11*d.*,—viz., customs, 2,098,353*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.*; excise, 2,934,000*l.*; stamps, 453,223*l.* 10*s.* 5*d.*; property and income tax, 1,076,996*l.* 3*s.* 10*d.*; small branches of the revenue, 300*l.*; miscellaneous, 332,974*l.* 5*s.* 4*d.* In the year ended 31st December, 1857, there were entered for home consumption in Ireland, 580,205 gallons of wine; 7,070,395 gallons of spirits; 5,305,272 qrs. of tobacco; 9,772,906 qrs. of tea; 730,603 lbs. of coffee; 365,605 cwt. of sugar; 1,246,896 lbs. of cotton wool; 81,412 loads of timber, not sawn or split; and 108,360 loads of timber, sawn or split. The revenue for stamp duties amounted to 465,657*l.*

NATIONAL DEBT.

Return of the Amount of the National Debt existing on the 31st March, 1858, specifying the Description of Stock, the Interest payable on each Description, the Reduction or Increase of Interest payable, with the Causes of such Reduction or Increase, and showing the Amount of Stock created or redeemed, &c. (Mr. Ricardo.) 13th April, 1858. (312.)

On the 31st March, 1857, the unredeemed debt amounted to 780,119,720*l.*, and the annual interest payable, 23,410,568*l.* On the 31st March, 1858, the unredeemed debt amounted to 779,225,493*l.*, and the annual interest payable, 23,383,768. On this latter date the debt consisted of the following descriptions of stock:—2,991,858*l.*, 2½ per cent.; 418,300*l.*, 2¾ per cent.; 772,511,217*l.*, 3 per cent.; 2,871,515*l.*, 3½ per cent.; and 432,603*l.*, 5 per

cent. In the year ending 31st March, 1857, there was created a debt of 5,831,519*l*.; and in the year ended 31st March, 1858, there was created a debt of 206,411*l*.; making a total of 6,037,930*l*. In the same period there was redeemed a debt of 2,125,128*l*. From the 1st of September, 1858, to the 31st March, 1858, there was a capital stock cancelled of 51,803,907*l*. 14*s*.

EXHIBITION OF 1851.

Accounts of the Receipts and Expenditure of the Royal Commission for the Exhibition of 1851 for the Year ending 31st December, 1856 and 1857.
(Mr. Adderley.) 22nd April, 1858. (231.)

THE receipts from the 31st December, 1855, to the 31st December, 1856, including balance in hand, amounted to 21,128*l*. 3*s*. 6*d*., and the payments, 13,956*l*. 2*s*. 8*d*., leaving a balance of 108,914*l*. 17*s*. 8*d*. In 1857, the receipts amounted to 2,504*l*. 15*s*. 1*d*., and the payments, 34,324*l*. 0*s*. 10*d*.; and the balance in hand on the 31st December, 1857, was 77,095*l*. 11*s*. 11*d*.

PUBLIC DEBT.

An Account of all Additions which have been made to the Annual Charge of the Public Debt by the Interest of any Loan that hath been made or Annuities created in the last Ten Years, pursuant to Act 27 George 3, c. 13. (77.)

In the year 1848 the sum of 2,000,000*l*. was raised, and a capital in 3 per cent. of 2,288,434*l*. 18*s*. was created, with an annual charge of 69,339*l*. 11*s*. 6*d*. In the year 1853 there was created a capital in 3 per cent. of 383,098*l*. 5*s*. 1*d*., bearing an annual charge of 11,607*l*. 17*s*. 6*d*. A capital of 891,662*l*. 14*s*. 1*d*. was also created in 3 per cent., bearing an annual charge of 27,017*l*. 7*s*. 6*d*. And Exchequer bonds were created in exchange for Exchequer bills for 409,900*l*., bearing a capital of 11,244*l*. 15*s*. In 1855, the sum of 16,000,000*l*. was authorized to be raised, and a capital stock of 16,000,000*l*. was created in 3 per cent., as well as an annuity of 14*s*. 6*d*. for a term of thirty years, amounting to 116,000*l*., bearing an annual charge respectively of 484,800*l*. and 116,870*l*. In the year 1856, Exchequer bills were subscribed to be funded, and a capital was created of 3,333,250*l*., bearing a charge of 100,997*l*. 9*s*. 6*d*. In 1856, 5,000,000*l*. was authorized to be raised, and a capital stock was created of 5,555,416*l*. 13*s*. 4*d*., bearing an annual interest of 168,329*l*. 2*s*. 6*d*. In the same year, another 5,000,000*l*. was raised, and a capital stock was created in 3 per cent. for 5,376,458*l*. 6*s*. 8*d*., bearing an annual charge of 162,906*l*. 13*s*. 9*d*.

CUSTOMS DUTIES.

*Return showing the Amount received in the past year, as Customs Duty, on each Article of Import yielding a less sum in Import Duty than 10,000*l.*; with the Rate of Duty on each Article, and the Total Amount received in all (Mr. Ewart.) 4th February, 1857. (3.)*

THIS return shows that the sum of 151,596*l.* was received for customs' duty on 128 articles, 8 articles producing 5,000*l.*, and less than 10,000*l.*; 8 articles 3,000*l.*, and less than 5,000*l.*; 20 articles 1,000*l.*, and less than 3,000*l.*; 8 articles 500*l.*, and less than 1,000*l.*; and the remainder 1*l.*, and less than 500*l.*

PRINTED PAPERS.

Return of the Cost of Printing Reports and Papers Presented by Command of her Majesty during the Session, 1857, specifying the Number of Copies Printed, with the Name of the Public Department which authorized the same. 12th March, 1858. (123.)

THE total cost of the reports and papers presented by command during the session 1857 was 15,839*l.*, exclusive of the cost of the printing ordered by the two Houses of Parliament, &c. For the Home Office, 3,888*l.*; for the Foreign Office, 1,075*l.*; for the War Department, 927*l.*; for the Colonial Office, 676*l.*; for the Treasury, 3,869*l.*; for the Board of Trade, 1,578*l.*; for the Secretary for Ireland, 3,380*l.*; and for the India Board, 447*l.* The number of copies of any paper or report printed is usually 1750.

LOANS, &c., TO FOREIGN STATES.

Account of all Sums of Money Paid or Advanced by way of Loans, subsidy or otherwise, to any Foreign State, from the year 1854 up to the present time, arranged alphabetically, showing the Total Amount now owing by each (Mr. Joseph Ewart.) 4th May, 1858. (326.)

IN 1854, there was paid or advanced to Greece 47,637*l.*, and the amount owing by her was 520,155*l.* 5*s.* 11*d.* For the Russian-Dutch loan there was paid 87,312*l.* In 1855 there was paid for the Greek loan 47,494*l.* 8*s.* 1*d.*, increasing the amount owing by her to 567,649*l.* 14*s.* For the Russian-Dutch loan, 85,557*l.* 3*s.* 5*d.*; and 1,000,000*l.* was advanced to Sardinia, the amount owing by her being 997,500*l.* In 1856, for the Greek loan, 47,048*l.* 11*s.* 11*d.*, making the amount owing by her 614,098*l.* 5*s.* 11*d.*; for the Russian-Dutch loan, 85,366*l.* 12*s.* 11*d.*; and another 1,000,000*l.* was lent to Sardinia, increasing the sum owing by her to 1,985,049*l.* 18*s.* 9*d.* In 1857, for the Greek loan, 47,258*l.* 16*s.*, the sum due by her being 661,957*l.* 1*s.* 11*d.*; the Russian-Dutch loan, 83,311*l.* 19*s.* 2*d.* The sum owing by Sardinia had been reduced to 1,964,241*l.* 10*s.* 2*d.* The payment

of the Russian-Dutch loan is not of the nature of a loan or subsidy repayable to the British Government. Under conventions dated the 19th May, 1815, and 16th November, 1831, confirmed by the Acts 55 Geo. 3, c. 115, and 2 and 3 Will. 4, c. 81, Great Britain agreed to pay a moiety of the capital of the Russian loan made in Holland, and the interest thereof, at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum, together with a sinking fund of 1 per cent. per annum, for the extinction of the same. The original portion of the loan guaranteed by Great Britain in the year 1816 was 25,000,000 florins Dutch currency; the principal paid off under the operation of the Sinking Fund amounts to 10,500,000 florins, leaving a balance still due by Great Britain of 14,500,000 florins.

LOANS (PUBLIC WORKS).

Returns, showing the Amount remaining Unissued to the Credit of the Commissioners for the Advance of Loans for Public Works in Great Britain and Ireland, together with all further Sums placed to their Credit, from the 5th of January, 1853, to the 5th of January, 1858. (Mr. Sullivan.) 7th May, 1858. (352.)

ON the 5th January, 1853, there remained unissued 167,524*l.* 10*s.* 3*d.*; and from that day to the 5th January, 1858, there was placed to the credit of the Commissioners 150,000*l.*, making in all 1,667,524*l.* 10*s.* 3*d.* During the five years there was advanced for various purposes for baths and wash-houses, for burial boards, for churches and parochial chapels, for harbour and docks, for law courts, gaols, and other public buildings, for local boards of health, for improvements of cities and towns, for lunatic asylums, for workhouses, and for railways, 1,572,782*l.*, and there remained unpaid the sum of 1,439,490*l.*

PUBLIC INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

Accounts of the Net Public Income and Expenditure of the United Kingdom for the several Years ending 5th of April, 1854, and 31st of March, 1855, 1856, 1857, and 1858, respectively; also of the Public Revenue and Expenditure from 1851 to 1857 inclusive; and of the Expenditure for the Army, Navy, Ordnance, and Militia, from 1851 to 1857 inclusive. (Mr. Bouverie.) 19th April, 1858. (407.)

THE net income of the United Kingdom for the year ending the 5th April, 1854, was 54,894,194*l.*, and the expenditure 51,369,409*l.*, showing an excess of income over expenditure of 3,524,785*l.* The net income for the year ending 31st March, 1855, was 59,496,164*l.*, and the expenditure 65,692,962*l.*, showing an excess of expenditure of 6,196,808*l.* The net income for the year ended 31st March, 1856, was 65,704,491*l.*, and the

expenditure 88,428,345*l.*, showing an excess of expenditure of 22,723,854*l.* The income for the year ended 31st March, 1857, was 68,097,287*l.*, and the expenditure 71,351,892*l.*, showing an excess of expenditure of 3,254,605*l.* The income for the year ended 31st March, 1858, was 63,522,524*l.*, and the expenditure 66,019,870*l.*, showing an excess of expenditure over income of 2,497,346*l.* The army, navy, and ordnance expenditure in 1852 was 16,505,906*l.*; in 1853, 16,325,675; in 1854, quarter ending 5th April, 4,227,769*l.*; and year ended 31st March, 1855, 30,121,707*l.*; in the year ended 31st March, 1856, 51,661,188*l.*; in the year ended 31st March, 1857, 34,270,255*l.*; and the year ended 31st March, 1858, 24,995,850*l.*

FINANCE ACCOUNTS.

Finance Accounts of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland for the Financial Year 1856-7, ended 31st March, 1857. (145 Sess. 2.)

THE financial operations of the Lords Commissioners of Her Majesty's Treasury in connection with the income and expenditure of the United Kingdom, between the 1st of April, 1856, and 31st of March, 1857, were as follow:—The receipts included—balances in the Exchequer, 5,600,621*l.* 6*s.* 10*d.*; total income, 72,334,062*l.* 10*s.* 10*d.*; repayment of advances, 1,499,021*l.* 17*s.* 5*d.*; money raised by creation of additional debt, 7,499,000*l.*; conversion of unfunded debt, 898,800*l.*; supply raised by renewal of securities: Exchequer bills, 19,976,700*l.*; temporary advances received, 7,713,439*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.*: total, 115,521,645*l.* 4*s.* 5*d.* The payments included—expenditure, 75,588,667*l.* 3*s.* 7*d.*; advances by way of loan, 2,262,816*l.* 14*s.* 11*d.*; cash retained by the Bank for receiving loans, and funding Exchequer bills, 6,200*l.*; redemption of funded debt, 20,569*l.* 4*s.* 5*d.*; redemption of hereditary pensions, 90,187*l.* 17*s.* 7*d.*; conversion of unfunded debt, Exchequer bills, subscribed, 1,057,800*l.*; redemption of unfunded debt, Exchequer bills exchanged for new bills, 20,112,600*l.*; temporary advances, repaid Exchequer bills redeemed out of the revenue, 7,713,439*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.*; balances in the Exchequer, 31st of March, 1857, 8,668,370*l.* 14*s.* 7*d.*; total, 115,521,645*l.* 4*s.* 5*d.*

The gross receipt for the year ended 31st March, 1857, was, in Great Britain, 68,297,036*l.* 2*s.* 6½*d.*; in Ireland, 7,653,788*l.* 19*s.* 6½*d.*; in the United Kingdom, 75,350,825*l.* 2*s.* 0½*d.* The payments into the Exchequer amounted to 72,334,062*l.* 10*s.* 10*d.* This latter amount was made up of the following sums:—Customs, 23,321,842*l.* 16*s.* 6*d.*; excise, 18,165,000*l.*; stamps, 7,372,209*l.* 4*s.* 3*d.*; land and assessed taxes, 3,116,046*l.* 7*s.* 8*d.*; property tax, 16,089,933*l.* 5*s.* 5*d.*; Post-Office, 2,886,000*l.*; crown lands, 284,857*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.*; other items, 1,098,173*l.* 15*s.* 6*d.*: total, 72,334,062*l.* 10*s.* 10*d.*

The expenditure for the same period amounted to 75,588,667*l.* 3*s.* 7*d.*, viz., debt, 28,681,176*l.* 15*s.*; consolidated fund, 1,773,726*l.* 1*s.* 2*d.*; supply services, army, 20,811,242*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.*; navy, 13,459,013*l.*; civil services,

6,626,733*l.* 15*s.* 8*d.*; salaries, 4,236,775*l.* 5*s.* 3*d.*: total, 75,588,667*l.* 3*s.* 7*d.*
 Excess of expenditure over income, 3,254,604*l.* 12*s.* 9*d.*

For the service of the year a loan of 5,000,000*l.* was contracted per Act 19 Vic. c. 6. Every contributor towards raising the said loan was entitled, for every 100*l.* principal money, contributed and paid, to 111*l.* 2*s.* 2*d.*, three per cent. consolidated annuities, the dividend to commence from the 5th of January, 1856. It was provided by the said Act that an annual sum of 250,000*l.* should be charged on the Consolidated Fund, and be applied by the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt, for the redemption of 5,555,416*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*, the capital created by the loan. The first payment to be made in the financial year, commencing on the 1st of April, which shall happen twelve months after the ratification of a definitive treaty of peace with Russia (1st of April, 1858). For the service of the year a second loan was contracted for 5,000,000*l.* per Act 19 Vic. c. 21. Every contributor towards raising the said loan, was entitled, for every 100*l.* principal money contributed and paid, to 107*l.* 10*s.* 7*d.*, three per cent. consolidated annuities, the dividend to commence from the 5th of January, 1856; and similar provision was made for the redemption of 5,376,458*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*, the capital created by the said loan; the first payment to be made in the financial year commencing on the 1st of April, 1857.

By Act 19 Vic. c. 5, 3,000,000*l.* of Exchequer bills were funded. Each subscriber in the books opened at the Bank of England towards funding Exchequer bills charged on the aids or supplies dated in December, 1854, and March, June, and August, 1855, was entitled, for 100*l.* principal money contained in such Exchequer bills so subscribed, to 111*l.* 2*s.* 2*d.*, three per cent. consolidated annuities, the interest to commence from the 5th of January, 1856. Each subscriber was also allowed, instead of depositing Exchequer bills at the Bank of England, to pay money in lieu thereof, upon payment of 5*s.* per annum, and he was allowed the same amount of stock for his 100*l.* 5*s.* as those that subscribed Exchequer bills. The capital created was 3,333,250*l.*

By Act 19 and 20 Vic. c. 44, the sum of 1,000,000*l.* was raised by Exchequer bills at par, and was paid into the Bank of England on the 17th, 23rd, and 26th of December, 1856. The remaining sum of 3,000,000*l.* not being required was allowed to lapse under the provisions of the Act which limited the time for issuing the bills to the 31st of March, 1857.

The total amount of unredeemed funded debt on the 31st March, 1856, was 775,312,694*l.* 19*s.* 2*d.* Between the 31st March, 1856, and the 31st March, 1857, there was created a total debt of 8,131,487*l.* 15*s.*, making a total debt, on the 31st March, 1857, of 783,444,182*l.* 14*s.* 2*d.*, bearing an annual charge of 27,663,866*l.* 17*s.* 3½*d.* In the same year, 1856-7, the sum of 3,324,459*l.* 15*s.* 2*d.* was reduced of debt, leaving a balance due to the public creditor, on the 31st March, 1857, of 780,119,722*l.* 19*s.*, bearing

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an annual charge of 27,500,112*l.* 17*s.* 7*d.*, besides the sum of 88,118*l.* 9*s.* 6*d.* for expenses of management.

The trade of the United Kingdom in the year ended 31st December, 1856, was as follows:—the imports of the United Kingdom, calculated at the official rates of valuation, amounted to 131,936,784*l.* The exports of produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom, 258,686,332*l.*; of foreign and colonial merchandise, 33,426,227*l.*; total exports, 292,112,259*l.* The value of the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom exported therefrom, according to the real or declared value thereof, was 115,817,105*l.* In the year ended 31st December, 1856, there were built 1855 new vessels—422,359 tons. On the 31st December, 1856, there were registered, in the United Kingdom and British colonies, 36,106 vessels, 5,316,736 tons, 267,759 men. In the year ended 31st December, 1856, there were entered inwards in the United Kingdom, 26,029 vessels, 6,390,715 tons, British and Irish vessels; and 19,371 vessels, 4,162,419 tons, foreign vessels: and cleared outwards, 26,115 vessels, 6,555,056 tons, British and Irish vessels; and 20,744 vessels, 4,480,859 tons, foreign vessels.

CIVIL SERVICES.

Return of the Sums voted in each Year for Civil Services, from 1816 to 1858, both inclusive, &c. (Mr. Wilson.) 30th July, 1858. (510.)

For public works, there was voted 221,000*l.* in 1816, and 925,000*l.* in 1857; for salaries and expenses of public departments, 204,000*l.* in 1816, and 1,516,000*l.* in 1857; for law and justice, 267,000*l.* in 1816, and 2,637,000*l.* in 1857; for education, science, and art, 126,000*l.* in 1816, and 996,000*l.* in 1857; for colonial and consular services, 398,000*l.* in 1816, and 382,000*l.* in 1857; for superannuation and charities, 226,000*l.* in 1816, and 239,000*l.* in 1857; for special and temporary objects, 161,000*l.* in 1816, and 638,000*l.* in 1857; for civil contingencies, 340,000*l.* in 1816, and 100,000*l.* in 1857. The total sum voted in 1816 was 1,946,000*l.*, and in 1857, 7,435,000*l.* The great increase took place in late years, since 1854, when there was 1,000,000*l.* of increase under law and justice; 300,000*l.* in public works and buildings; 300,000*l.* in education, science, and art; 300,000*l.* in special and temporary objects. The salaries and expenses of the public departments greatly increased in 1848, when they exceeded 1,000,000*l.*, and increased since to 1,500,000*l.* The total amount expended was 1,726,000*l.* in 1816; 2,300,000*l.* in 1826; 2,250,000*l.* in 1836; 3,261,000*l.* in 1846; 6,625,000*l.* in 1856; and 7,220,000*l.* in 1857.

No. CXXXVI.—POOR LAW (ENGLAND AND WALES).

Tenth Annual Report of the Poor Law Board.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

THE sum of 5,898,756*l.* was expended for the relief of the poor during the year which ended the 25th of March, 1857, being a decrease of 100,908*l.* as compared with the sum expended during the preceding year. With an estimated population of 19,207,000, the rate per head was 6*s.* 1½*d.* against 6*s.* 3½*d.* in 1856. The average rate from 1834 to 1857 (24 years) was 6*s.* 2*d.* The number of persons of all classes in receipt of relief on the 1st of January, 1858, was 902,032, being 58,602 more than on the 1st of January, 1857, or 6·9 per cent. increase. The education of pauper children was attended to; 34,369 children were attending the workhouse schools and 2,871 children the district schools, making a total of 37,240 children.

No. CXXXVII.—POOR LAW (IRELAND).

Eleventh Annual Report of the Commissioners for Administering the Laws for Relief of the Poor in Ireland.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

IN the week ending the 2nd of January, 1858, there were 49,308 paupers in the union workhouses in Ireland. The number of workhouse inmates reached its minimum, 39,491, on the 5th of September, 1857. During the year ending the 29th of September, 1857, there were admitted in the workhouses 137,711 paupers. The poor rate imposed for the year amounted to 585,583*l.*, and the amount expended to 498,689*l.*, being a decrease of 77,501*l.* on the amount expended in the previous year. The number relieved indoor was 186,235. A return was obtained by the Commissioners, showing the number of paupers removed from England and Scotland, and admitted into the workhouses of Ireland. These were—in the year ending 25th of March, 1855, 1,550; March, 1856, 1,542; March, 1857, 1,172; March, 1858, 1,316. Upon the law of removal of poor persons the Commissioners reported as follows:—

“The power of removal is exercised in England under the provisions of the Statute 8 and 9 Vict., c. 117; and in Scotland under the provisions of the Statute 8 and 9 Vict., c. 83. Under these statutes persons born in Scotland may be removed from England to Scotland, and *vice versa*; and persons born in Ireland may be removed from England and Scotland to Ireland: but there is no provision authorizing persons born in England and Scotland, and becoming chargeable in Ireland, to be removed from Ireland to England and Scotland respectively.

“Under these statutes persons must be removed from England by warrant obtained after a hearing and examination before justices; and in Scotland, if unwilling to go, they are compulsorily removable in like manner; but in Scotland such persons may, with their own consent, be removed

by the parochial authorities, at the expense of the parish, without legal process. In both cases the removal of Irish-born persons is a removal to Ireland, and not to any particular place therein; nor is it made incumbent on the removing authorities to deliver the destitute persons removed to any authority charged with the administration of relief in Ireland. A landing on any part of the shores of Ireland is, in either case, an execution of the warrant, as the form of the warrant in each case most clearly indicates.

"No one can be legally removed, under these statutes, to Ireland, who has obtained a settlement in England or Scotland, or who in England has continuously resided for five years in any parish or place separately maintaining its own poor; and a power of appeal is given to protect places in Ireland against illegal removals from places in England, but not against illegal removals from Scotland.

"The design of the Legislature, without doubt, has been, that on the landing of the English or Scotch Irish-born pauper in Ireland, he should proceed to his place of birth in that country; but the peculiar state of the law in Ireland presents obstacles, rather than facilities, to the fulfilment of that intention; for if the destitute person, on his landing at any port in Ireland, obtains relief from the poor-law authorities of that place, the latter cannot, without a violation of law, for which they are responsible, by way of indictment, take any part in assisting him to proceed to any other place in Ireland for the purpose of his being relieved there. This state of the law, however salutary in its operation, as between union and union in Ireland, has the effect of throwing on particular towns in Ireland a burthen in regard to paupers removed from Great Britain, to which it could scarcely have been meant by the Legislature to subject them. The towns peculiarly so burdened are Dublin, Belfast, and Cork; Dublin, from its proximity, as a port, to Liverpool and the principal manufacturing districts of England; Belfast, from its proximity to Glasgow and the principal manufacturing districts of Scotland; and Cork, as the port most directly in communication with London and Bristol, and the intervening ports on the English coast. Londonderry and Limerick, and other ports in Ireland, have also their share of such burthens, arising chiefly on the regulations which exist in England as to the port nearest to the place of birth, and on those of a similar kind which have been suggested by the Board of Supervision to the poor-law authorities in Scotland.

"Moreover, it so happens that the towns in Ireland peculiarly subjected to the burthen of maintaining English and Scotch Irish-born paupers removed to Ireland, are subject to a very serious degree of taxation for poor-law purposes, as well as for others of a municipal character, arising within themselves; and this additional burthen, accompanied by a sense of unfairness, creates some considerable degree of public dissatisfaction; but the feeling which predominates in the minds of the citizens of the towns referred to is one of commiseration for the persons who, from time to time, are landed on the wharfs and quays, at all hours of the day and night, in a state of absolute destitution, especially for those who have been forcibly removed to a distance beyond sea from their connections in Great Britain, after a long residence there, as is very frequently the case; and the consequence is that a charitable fund is sometimes created to supply the means of carrying out those measures which humanity dictates in regard to these unfortunate persons."

No. CXXXVIII.—POOR LAW (SCOTLAND).

Thirteenth Annual Report of the Board of Supervision for the Relief of the Poor in Scotland.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

THE Board of Supervision called attention to the state of pauperism in the Highlands. Comparing Scotland with Ireland, there were 5 paupers in Scotland to 1 in Ireland. Comparing the two provinces of Ulster and Connaught, which had, in 1851, a population of 3,021,911, with Scotland, which had a population of 2,888,742,—in the former there were relieved only 13,848 persons, and in the latter 119,453. In the four Highland counties, viz., Argyll, Inverness, Ross, and Sutherland, 1 in every 18·27 of the inhabitants was receiving relief, but in the two Irish provinces only 1 in 218. Some difference exists in the mode of administering poor relief in the two countries. In Ireland, not only is relief given almost exclusively in the workhouse, but the relief there given is in a form less costly than in the poorhouses in Scotland. Whilst in Scotland out-door relief is the rule, relief in the poorhouses is the exception; in Ireland, relief in the workhouse, and only in the workhouse, is the rule, out-door relief the rare and special exception. The sum expended for the relief and management of the poor during the year ending the 14th of May, 1858, was 640,700*l.*, or 4*s.* 5*d.* per head of the population, and 6*l.* 17*s.* 5½*d.* per cent. on real property. A comparison was also instituted of poor relief in Scotland and in England; comparing Yorkshire, Durham, Northumberland, Cumberland, and Westmoreland, having a population somewhat similar to that of Scotland. In the English counties there was 1 receiving relief in 25·51 of the population; and in Scotland 1 in 24·18. The cost of the relief in the English counties was 4*l.* 5*s.* per head; and in Scotland, 4*l.* 5*s.* 10½*d.* The number of registered poor in Scotland, on the 14th of May, 1858, was 79,199.

No. CXXXIX.—POPULATION, &c.

Miscellaneous Statistics of the United Kingdom.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

Population.—The estimated population of England and Wales on the 30th June, 1856, was 19,045,187; of Scotland, 3,035,262; of Great Britain, 22,080,449. The number of living births in the year was 657,453 in England and Wales, 101,748 in Scotland, 759,201 in Great Britain. The number of deaths, 390,506 in England and Wales, 58,456 in Scotland, 448,962 in Great Britain. The number of marriages, 159,337 in England and Wales, 20,487 in Scotland, 179,824 in Great Britain. The population of England and Wales on the 30th June, 1856, was estimated at 9,357,035 males and 9,688,152 females. The excess of births over deaths in England and Wales in 1856 was 258,273. The proportion of living births to population was 1 in 30. The proportion of illegitimate to legitimate was 1 in

23. The proportion of marriages to population in England and Wales was 1 in 119, and in the metropolis, 1 in 100. The proportion of deaths to population was 1 in 47 males, and 1 in 51 females; total, 1 in 49. Of the 390,506 deaths in England and Wales from all causes, 14,160 died of scarlatina, 9,225 of hooping-cough, 13,815 of diarrhoea, 762 of cholera, 15,398 of typhus, 8,213 of dropsy, 48,950 of phthisis or consumption, 7,299 of hydrocephalus, 8,278 of apoplexy, 8,497 of paralysis, 23,946 of convulsions, 12,803 of diseases of the heart, 21,528 of bronchitis, and 22,653 of pneumonia. The ages at death were as follow:—159,067 under 5 years; 16,165, 5 to 10; 9,143, 10 to 15; 26,654, 15 to 25; 26,371, 25 to 35; 25,861, 35 to 45; 25,024, 45 to 55; 29,353, 55 to 65; 35,085, 65 to 75; 28,962, 75 to 85; 8,273, 85 to 95; and 548, 95 and upwards. The population of Scotland was estimated in 1856 at 1,445,244 males, 1,590,018 females; total, 3,035,262. The annual increase of population was 29,304, or 1 in 102. The proportion of living births to population was 1 in 29. The proportion of marriages to population was 1 in 140; the proportion of deaths to population, 1 in 52.

Electors.—In the year 1857, there were in England 469,868 registered electors in counties, returning 144 members; and 426,377 electors in boroughs, returning 323 members: total for England, 896,245 electors, returning 467 members. In Wales, 36,120 electors in counties, returning 15 members; 12,699 electors in boroughs, returning 14 members: total, 48,789 electors, returning 29 members. In Scotland, there were—50,403 electors in counties, returning 30 numbers; 50,069 electors in boroughs, returning 23 numbers: total, 100,472 electors, returning 53 members. In Ireland, there were—149,354 electors in counties, returning 64 members; 29,633 electors in boroughs, returning 41 members: total, 178,987 electors, returning 105 members. In the United Kingdom, there were—705,745 electors in counties, returning 253 members; 518,748 electors in boroughs, returning 401 members; total, 1,224,493 electors, returning 654 members.

NO. CXL.—GRAND JURY PRESENTMENTS (IRELAND).

Abstract of Accounts of Presentments made by the Grand Juries of the several Counties, Cities, and Towns in Ireland in the Year 1857. (16th April, 1858.) (205.)

The presentments in the year were as follows:—For new roads, bridges, cesses, &c., 82,090*l.* 19*s.* 6*d.*; for repair of roads, bridges, &c., 457,090*l.*; for court of sessions houses, 5,269*l.*; for gaols, houses of correction, &c., 8,122*l.*; for all other prisons and bridewell expenses, 82,801*l.*; for police, 25,811*l.*; for salaries of county officers, 102,634*l.*; for public charities, 73,830*l.*; for repayment of advances to Government, 122,198*l.*; miscellaneous, 85,287*l.*: gross amount of presentments, 1,045,132*l.* The amount of re-presentments was 12,322*l.*, leaving a net amount of presentments of 1,032,810*l.*

No. CXLL—RATING OF TENEMENTS.

Returns from the several Parishes or Townships in the Counties of Lancashire, Suffolk, Hampshire, and Gloucestershire, respectively, of the Number of Tenements Assessed to the Rate for the Relief of the Poor made next before the Rate now collected, &c.; of the Number of Tenements Assessed of which the Occupiers have been excused; and of the Number and Amount of Compositions with Owners of Small Tenements. (Lord Stanley.) 21st May, 1858. (290.)

In the county of Lancaster, the total amount of rate was 619,369*l.*; the number of tenements assessed was 458,735; and the number the occupiers of which have been excused was 24,285. In the county of Suffolk, the amount of rate was 58,126*l.*; the number of tenements assessed was 65,891; and the number the occupiers of which have been excused was 5,378. In the county of Southampton, the amount of rate was 68,263*l.*; the number of tenements assessed, 74,691; and the number of excusals, 4,632. In the county of Gloucester, the amount of rates was 95,289*l.*; the number of tenements assessed, 91,108; and the number of excusals, 8,828. The total amount of rate in the four counties was 841,048*l.*; the total number of tenements assessed, 690,425; the number of excusals, 43,123. Composition was made with the owners of 175,663 tenements for the amount of 133,294*l.*

No. CXLII—METROPOLIS RATES.

Abstract Returns from each Vestry and District Board relative to the Metropolis Rates for the year ending March 25th, 1857, &c. (Sir John Shelley.) 23rd March, 1858. (149.)

In the parish of St. George, Hanover Square, the poor-rate, including police, county, baths and wash-houses, and burial board, was 1*s.* 10*d.*; and the general rate, including paving, lighting, &c., 1*s.*; local sewerage, 2*d.*; debts on the district, 2*d.* In St. Leonard, Shoreditch, the county rate was 4*d.*; police, 6*d.*; poor, 3*s.* 10*d.*; burial board, quarter of a farthing; sewers' rate, 3*d.*; lighting rate, 7*d.*; general rate, 1*s.* 2*d.* In St. Mary, Islington:—County, 3½*d.*; police, 6*d.*; poor, 11½*d.*; burial board, 1½*d.*; paving, 7½*d.*; lighting and cleansing, 6½*d.*; local sewerage, 2*d.* In St. Mary, Lambeth:—County, 4*d.*; police, 6*d.*; poor, 2*s.* 5*d.*; paving, cleansing, &c., 10*d.*; lighting, 6*d.*; local sewerage, 3*d.* In St. Marylebone:—Poor rate, 2*s.*; paving, lighting, &c., 1*s.* 4*d.* where streets watered, and 1*s.* 2*d.* where streets not watered; sewers' rate, 2*d.*; church rate, 1*d.* In St. Pancras:—County rate, 3½*d.*; police, 6*d.*; poor, 1*s.* 1½*d.*; burial board, 1*d.*; paving and cleansing, 6*d.*; lighting, 4*d.*; local sewerage, 1*s.* 8*d.*; Board of Works, 3*s.* 8*d.*; other charges, 7½*d.* In Bermondsey:—Poor rate, including county police, &c., 4*s.*; lighting, 8*d.*; general purposes, 1*s.* 4*d.*; sewers, 6*d.* In Camberwell:—Poor, including county police, &c., 2*s.* 8*d.*;

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paving, general purposes rate, 8*d.*; lighting, 7½*d.*; local sewer rate, 6*d.* In Mile End Old Town:—Poor, 2*s.* 1*d.*; police, 6*d.*; county, 4*d.*; general 1*s.* 1*d.*; sewers, 5*d.* In Paddington:—Poor, including police, county, &c., 1*s.* 1*d.*; lighting, 2*d.*; general, 6½*d.*; sewers, 2*d.*; vestry premises, ½*d.*; church, 1*d.* In St. George the Martyr, Southwark:—County rate, 4*d.*; police, 6*d.*; poor, 3*s.* 1*d.*; paving, lighting, &c., 1*s.* 6*d.*; sewerage, 4*d.*; Board of Works, 3½*d.* In St. George in the East:—County, 3*d.*; police, 6*d.*; poor, 3*s.* 9*d.*; general purposes, 1*s.* 5*d.*; local sewerage, &c., 5*d.* In St. James and St. John, Clerkenwell:—County, 2*d.*; police, 8*d.*; poor, 2*s.* 9*d.*; sewerage, 1*d.*; lighting, 6*d.*; general purposes, 1*s.* 1*d.* In St. James, Westminster:—County, 3½*d.*; police, 6*d.*; poor, 11½*d.*; paving, lighting, &c., 6*d.*; local sewerage, 1*d.* In St. John, Hampstead:—County, 7½*d.*; poor, 1*s.* 8*d.*; lighting, 6*d.*; paving, and cleaning, 1*s.* 6*d.*; sewerage, 7½*d.*; debt, ½*d.* In St. Luke, Chelsea:—County, 3½*d.*; police, 6*d.*; poor, 2*s.* 5*d.*; paving, lighting, &c., 1*s.* 6*d.*; sewerage, 7*d.*; debt, 6*d.*; Board of Works, 1½*d.* In St. Luke, Middlesex:—County, 2½*d.*; police, 6*d.*; poor, 2*s.* 3½*d.*; paving, lighting, &c., 1*s.* 1*d.*; sewerage, 2*d.*; debt, 3*d.* In St. Martin-in-the-Field:—County, 4*d.*; police, 7½*d.*; poor, 1*s.* 6*d.*; baths and washhouses, 2*d.*; paving, 5½*d.*; lighting, 2½*d.*; cleansing, 3*d.*; sewerage, 2*d.* In St. Mary Abbott, Kensington:—County, 3½*d.*; police, 6*d.*; poor, 1*s.* 3½*d.*; burial board, 1*d.*; paving, lighting, &c., 7½*d.*; local sewerage, 1*d.*; debt, 5½*d.*; Board of Works, 2*d.*; street watering, 3½*d.* In St. Mary, Rotherhithe:—Poor, county, and police rates, 4*s.*; paving, lighting, and general, 1*s.* 4*d.*; local sewerage, &c., 6*d.* In St. Matthew, Bethnal Green:—County rate, ¾*d.*; police, 4*d.*; poor, 1*s.*; paving, lighting, &c., 5*d.* In Woolwich:—County, police, poor, &c., 4*s.*; paving, lighting, &c., 1*s.* 8*d.*; sewerage, 4*d.* In Fulham Parish:—Poor rate, 3*s.* 6*d.*; county, 3½*d.*; police, 8*d.*; paving and cleansing, 8*d.*; lighting, 7*d.* In Hammersmith Parish:—County, 3½*d.*; police, 6½*d.*; poor, 3*s.* 4*d.*; paving and cleansing, 8*d.*; lighting, 7*d.* In Greenwich:—County, police, poor, &c., 3*s.* 5*d.*; paving and cleansing, 6*d.*; lighting, 6*d.*; local sewerage, 3*d.* In Hackney:—County, police, and poor, 2*s.* 8*d.*; paving and cleansing, 8*d.*; lighting, 6*d.*; sewerage, 3*d.* In Stoke Newington:—County, police, and poor, 2*s.* 6*d.*; paving and cleansing, 6*d.*; lighting, 6*d.*; sewerage, 4*d.* In Holborn District, the united parishes of St. Andrew, Holborn above bars, and St. George the Martyr:—County, police, and poor, 2*s.* 8*d.*; paving, cleansing, and lighting, 11*d.*; local sewerage, 2½*d.* In the liberty of Saffron Hill, Hatton Garden, and Ely Rents:—County, police, and poor rate, 3*s.* 6*d.*; paving, lighting, &c., 1*s.* 4*d.*; sewerage, 2*d.* In the parish of St. Sepulchre:—County, police, and poor rate, 5*s.* 0½*d.*; paving, cleansing, &c., 1*s.* 8*d.*; sewerage, 3*d.* In the liberty of Glasshouse Yard:—County and poor rate, 2*s.* 8*d.*; paving and lighting, 1*s.* 4*d.*; sewerage, 3*d.* In St. Giles District:—County, police, and poor rate, 2*s.* 3*d.*; paving, lighting, and cleansing, 1*s.* 6*d.*; sewerage, 4*d.*; Foundling Hospital estate debt, 4*d.* In St. Saviour's District, St. Saviour:—County, police, and poor, 3*s.* 9*d.*; paving, lighting, and cleansing, 1*s.* 1*d.*;

local sewerage, 11½d. In Christchurch:—County, police, poor, &c., 4s.; paving, lighting, and cleansing, 1s. 1d.; local sewerage, 1s. 1d. In Westminster District:—County, 4d.; police, 8d.; poor, 2s.; paving, lighting, &c., 10d.; local sewerage, 2d.; debt, 5d. Plumstead District: in Charlton:—Poor, police, and burial, 2s.; paving, lighting, &c., 6d. In Eltham:—Poor, 3s.; paving, lighting, &c., 8d. In Kidbrooke:—Poor, 9d.; paving, lighting, &c., 4½d. In Lee:—Poor, &c., 8d.; paving and lighting, 7d. In Plumstead:—Poor, &c., 2s.; lighting and paving, 1s. 3d. In St. Olave, Southwark: St. Olave's:—County, 4d.; police, 6d.; poor rate, 1s. 11d.; local sewerage, 1s. 10d. In St. John's:—County, 4d.; police, 8d.; poor rate, 4s. 6d.; paving, lighting, &c., 2s. 1d.; sewerage, 3d. In St. Thomas's:—County, 4d.; police, 6d.; poor rate, 3s. 1d.; paving, lighting, &c., 1s. 6d.; local sewerage, 8d.

No. CXLIII.—POOR RATES (METROPOLITAN DISTRICTS).

Return showing the gross estimated Rental and net Rateable Value of Property assessed to the Poor Rate; also the Annual Value thereof assessed to the Income Tax under Schedule A, in the Year 1856; the gross amount expended from Poor Rate, &c. (Mr. Ayrton.) 30th April, 1857. (208.)

In Greenwich, the estimated rental of property assessed to the poor rate increased from 103,000*l.* in 1840, to 154,000*l.* in 1857. The poor rate on gross rental was 1s. 10½d. in 1840, and 2s. 7d. in 1857. In Woolwich the property assessed in 1830 was 39,000*l.*, and in 1857, 84,000*l.* The rate was 4s. 10d. in 1835, and 3s. in 1857. In Bethnal Green the property assessed was 176,000*l.* in 1830, and 272,000*l.* in 1857, and the rate 2s. 9d. in 1835, and 2s. 1d. in 1857. In Chelsea the property assessed was 152,000*l.* in 1840, and 325,000*l.* in 1857, and the rate 2s. 1d. in 1840, and 1s. 9d. in 1857. In Clerkenwell the property assessed was 206,000*l.* in 1830, and 258,000*l.* in 1857, and the rate 2s. 2d. in 1835, and 1s. 11½d. in 1857. In St. George, Hanover Square, the property assessed in 1830 was 543,000*l.*, and in 1857, 840,000*l.*; the rate in 1835 was 1s. 3½d., and in 1857, 1s. 6½d. In Islington, the property assessed in 1840 was 257,000*l.*, and in 1857, 616,000*l.*; the rate in 1840 was 1s. 5d., and 1857, 1s. 5½d. In St. Marylebone the property assessed in 1830 was 812,000*l.*, and in 1857, 1,000,000*l.*; the rate was 1s. 9d. in 1835, and 2s. 2d. in 1857. In St. Luke the property assessed in 1840 was 178,000*l.*, and in 1857, 201,000*l.*; the rate was 2s. 1½d. in 1840, and 2s. 7d. in 1857. In St. Margaret and St. John, Westminster, the property assessed was 153,000*l.* in 1830, and 312,000*l.* in 1857; the rate was 2s. 3d. in 1830, and the same in 1857. In Paddington the property assessed in 1830 was 68,000*l.* and in 1857, 593,000*l.*; the rate was 1s. 6d. in 1830, and 1s. 1d. in 1857. In St. Pancras the property assessed was in 1830, 465,000*l.*, and in 1857, 843,000*l.*; the rate was 11½d. in 1835, and 2s. 4d. in 1857. In Shoreditch the property assessed was in 1840,

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202,000*l.*, and in 1857, 435,000*l.*; the rate in 1840 was 2*s.* 8*d.*, and in 1857, 2*s.* 3½*d.* In Lambeth the property assessed in 1830, was 333,000*l.*, and in 1857, 600,000*l.* The rate in 1835 was 3*s.* 1*d.*, and in 1857, 2*s.* 6½*d.* In St. George-the-Martyr, Southwark, the property assessed in 1830 was 115,000*l.*, and in 1857, 145,000*l.*; the rate in 1835 was 3*s.* 6*d.*, and in 1857, 4*s.* 11½*d.* In St. Bride the property assessed in 1830 was 31,000*l.*, and in 1857, 33,000*l.*; the rate in 1830 was 2*s.* 11*d.*, and in 1857, 3*s.* 4½*d.* In St. Andrew, Holborn, below the bar, the property assessed was 22,000*l.* in 1830, and 28,000*l.* in 1857; the rate was 2*s.* 10*d.* in 1830, and 3*s.* 8*d.* in 1857. In St. Mary-le-Bow, Cheapside, the property assessed in 1830 was 5,880*l.*, and in 1857, 6,852*l.*; the rate in 1835 was 2*s.* 2½*d.*, and in 1857, 1*s.* 4½*d.* In St. Martin, Ludgate, the property assessed was in 1840, 12,300*l.* and in 1857, 13,000*l.*; the rate was 1*s.* 4*d.* in 1830, and 1*s.* 9*d.* in 1857. In St. Margaret, Lothbury, the property assessed was in 1840 11,000*l.*, and 1857, 13,000*l.*; the rate in 1840 was 10½*d.*, and in 1857, 6½*d.*

No. CXLIV.—BARONIES.

Return of all Baronies called out of Abeyance up to the present Time, stating the Number of Years the Abeyance had continued in each Case, and the Date of Termination of the same. (Lord Redesdale.) 26th June, 1858. (289*L.*)

UP to the present time, twenty-four baronies have been called out of abeyance. Many of these had lasted in abeyance for a considerable time. Thus, the barony of Camoys fell into abeyance in the year 1426, and was called out of abeyance in 1839, having lasted in abeyance 413 years.

Under the reign of James I., there was called out of abeyance the barony of Despencer; under the reign of Charles I., the barony of Mowbray; under the reign of Charles II., the baronies of Windsor and Ferrers of Charbley; under the reign of George I., the barony of Clinton; under the reign of George II., the barony of Clifford; under the reign of George III., the baronies of Despencer, Botcourt, Clifford, Willoughby de Eresby, Howard de Walden, Botcourt, Roos (de Ros), and Zouche; under the reign of George IV., the barony of Zouche; under the reign of William IV., the baronies of Berners and Clifford; and under the reign of Victoria, the baronies of Vaux, Berners, Camoys, Braye, Beaumont, Hastings, and Windsor.

LXXXII.—WRECKS AND CASUALTIES.

An Abstract of the Returns of Wrecks and Casualties which occurred on and near the Coasts of the United Kingdom, from the 1st January to the 31st December, 1857.

DURING 1857, 1143 ships were wrecked, of 218,570 tons burden, with 9,819 hands employed. The wrecks occurred as follow:—January, 281; February, 64; March, 166; April, 76; May, 33; June, 34; July, 33; August, 75; September, 66; October, 135; November, 94; and December, 86. The wrecks were 923 British ships, 213 foreign, and 7 unknown. The vessels wrecked were laden as follows: 382, coals; 8, cotton; 15, fishing-smacks; 20, fish or oil; 90, grain, oatmeal, flour, and provisions; 85, general cargo; 88, metallic ore; 5, manure, kelp, and oil-cake; 21, passengers and general cargo; 16, potatoes or fruit; 38, salt; 10, sugar, coffee, spices, tea, or molasses; 50, stone, slate, lime, or bricks; 73, timber or bark; 6, wine or spirits; 26, various, or unknown; 138, in ballast; and 62, colliers in ballast. Total, 1,143. Of these, 172 were under 50 tons; 321 of 51 and under 100 tons; 473 of 101 and under 300 tons; 114 of 301 and under 600 tons; 43 of 601 and under 900 tons; 7 of 901 and under 1,200 tons; and 13 of 1,200 tons and upwards. The wrecks took place on the following parts of the coasts: 600 on the east coast, Dungeness to Pentland Firth inclusive; 84 on the south coast, Land's End to Greenock inclusive; 100 on the Irish coast; 8 on the Scilly Islands; 11 on the Lundy Island; 15 on the Isle of Man; and 39 on the northern islands, Orkney, Shetland, Hebrides, Islay, Campbelton, and north coast of Scotland. The force of the wind was as follows: 18 vessels were wrecked whilst the wind was calm, 32 light airs, 76 light breeze, 46 gentle breeze, 86 moderate breeze, 189 fresh breeze, 139 strong breeze, 85 moderate gale, 71 fresh gale, 134 strong gale, 148 whole gale, 94 storm, under storm-staysail, and 25 hurricane under bare poles. The masters of 79 vessels had certificates of competency for the home trade; 133 masters had certificates for the foreign trade; 198 masters had certificates of service for the home trade; and 97, certificates of service for the foreign trade; 335 masters trading in the coasting trade did not require to have certificates; 103 vessels were commanded by masters unknown as to certificates; and 198 were commanded by foreigners not holding British certificates. 599 vessels and 84 cargoes were reported to be insured, and the total amount of insurance on the vessels and cargoes was 473,135*l*. 179 vessels and 118 cargoes were reported as not insured; and of 365 vessels and 743 cargoes, it was unknown whether they were insured or not. 200 vessels were in ballast. The total estimated loss as reported was 519,301*l*.

The causes of wreck and casualties, excluding collisions, were indicated as follows:—471 arose from stress of weather; 152 from inattention, carelessness, or neglect; 70 from defects in ships or equipments; and 171 from

various causes, such as spontaneous combustion, want of pilot, foggy weather, &c. There were also 277 collisions, in 53 of which the ships were totally lost, and in 224 the ships were damaged. The collisions occurred, 75 between 6 A.M. and 6 P.M., and 202 between 6 P.M. and 6 A.M. The average number of wrecks in six years was 1,045, and the wrecks of the year were 1,143. This number showed a decrease of 9·6 per cent. as compared with 1852, an increase of 14·1 per cent. as compared with 1853, a decrease of 3·02 per cent. as compared with 1854, a decrease of 3·02 per cent. as compared with 1855, and an increase of 3·47 per cent. as compared with 1856. The collisions reported in 1857 showed an increase of 385·96 per cent. as compared with 1852; an increase of 279·45 per cent. as compared with 1853; an increase of 194·68 per cent. as compared with 1854; an increase of 12·15 per cent. as compared with 1855; and a decrease of 12·34 per cent. as compared with 1856. The rate per cent. of casualties upon voyages was 0·44, or 1 in 229, in British ships; 0·48, or 1 in 210, in foreign ships; and 0·44, or 1 in 225, in total ships.

LXXXIII.—RAILWAYS.

Return showing the Number of Passengers conveyed on all the Railways in England and Wales, Scotland and Ireland, respectively, during the half-year ended the 31st of December, 1857.

At the end of the year 1857 there were open for traffic in the United Kingdom 9,095 miles of railway; and during the half-year ended the 31st of December, 1857, there were conveyed 75,834,014½ passengers, of whom 10,029,700 in the first class, 22,798,685½ in the second, 12,909,457 in the third, and 30,096,172 parliamentary. There were also conveyed 18,212 passengers holders of season or periodical tickets, 7,315 tons of passengers' luggage on which a charge was made, 4,464,750 parcels, 31,170 carriages, 121,323 horses, and 178,205 dogs. There were 1,029,526 passenger trains, which travelled 23,426,677 miles. There were conveyed, also, 12,440,616 tons of merchandise, 12,263,974 tons of coal, 4,220,640 tons of minerals: total, 23,773,758 tons. 1,153,959 cattle, 4,167,423 sheep, 788,277 pigs: total, 6,109,659. There were 577,128 goods trains, which travelled 19,593,958 miles. The receipts were as follow:—From passengers, first class, 1,735,526*l.* 15*s.* 7½*d.*; second class, 1,985,560*l.* 13*s.* 8½*d.*; third class, 508,417*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.*; parliamentary, 1,550,291*l.* 13*s.* 7½*d.*; holders of season tickets, 104,116*l.* 18*s.* 3*d.*; total from passengers, 5,883,907*l.* 12*s.* 10½*d.* From passengers' luggage, 16,655*l.* 19*s.* 3*d.*; from parcels, 314,093*l.* 13*s.* 10½*d.*; from carriages, 29,973*l.* 4*s.* 4½*d.*; from horses, 86,149*l.* 18*s.* 2½*d.*; from dogs, 9,279*l.* 16*s.* 10½*d.*: total, 456,152*l.* 18*s.* 6½*d.* Receipts from mails, 229,323*l.* 14*s.* 7*d.* Total receipts from passengers, passengers' luggage, parcels, carriages, dogs, &c., 6,569,384*l.*, besides 4,098*l.* 0*s.* 7*d.*, which

could not be classified. The receipts from merchandise amounted to 3,835,178*l.* 19*s.* 6½*d.*; from minerals, 2,049,992*l.* 6*s.* 3½*d.*; from live stock, 254,047*l.* 12*s.* 7½*d.*: total general merchandise, minerals, and live stock, 6,139,218*l.* 18*s.* 5½*d.* Total receipts from all sources, 12,712,700*l.* 19*s.* 0½*d.*

LXXXIV.—RAILWAYS.

Return showing the Number of Passengers conveyed on all the Railways in England and Wales, Scotland and Ireland, respectively, during the half-year ended the 30th of June, 1858.

On the 30th of June, 1858, there were open for traffic, in the United Kingdom, 9,323 miles of railway; and during the half-year ending on that day there were conveyed 62,611,933 passengers, of whom 8,471,202 were first class, 19,156,377 second class, 10,741,794 third class, 24,242,560 parliamentary, and 19,000 holders of season or periodical tickets. There were, moreover, conveyed 14,769 tons of passengers' luggage on which a charge was made, 4,986,135 parcels, 24,190 carriages, 109,076 horses, and 116,155 dogs. There were conveyed, also, 12,561,885 tons of merchandise, 22,467,558 tons of minerals, 1,167,745 heads of cattle, 3,007,295 sheep, 1,117,998 pigs: total, 5,299,693. The number of trains run was 1,572,657, viz., 993,189 passenger trains, and 579,468 goods trains. The passenger trains travelled 22,640,775 miles, and the goods trains 19,309,984 miles. The receipts were 1,334,757*l.* 9*s.* 9*d.* from first class, 1,569,285*l.* from second class, 402,464*l.* from third class; 1,172,855*l.* 10*s.* from parliamentary; and 108,935*l.* 1*s.* from holders of season or periodical tickets. The receipts from passengers' luggage amounted to 13,152*l.* 19*s.* 9*d.*; from parcels, 134,174*l.* 13*s.* 6*d.*; from carriages, 23,000*l.* 15*s.*; from horses 63,152*l.* 13*s.* 11*d.*; and from dogs, 5,984*l.* 18*s.*; total, 393,851*l.* 6*s.* 1*d.* The receipts from mails were 220,738*l.*; from general merchandise, 3,722,802*l.*; from minerals, 1,950,048*l.* 14*s.*; from live stock, 252,659*l.* 12*s.* 7*d.*: total from general merchandise, minerals, and live stock, 5,925,510*l.* 15*s.* 11½*d.* Total receipts from all sources of traffic, 11,130,924*l.* 18*s.* 10*d.*

LXXXV.—RAILWAY ACCIDENTS.

Number and Nature of the Accidents, and the Injuries to Life and Limb, which have occurred on all the Railways open for traffic in England and Wales, Scotland and Ireland, respectively, from the 1st of July to the 31st of December, 1857:

DURING the half-year ended the 31st of December, 1857, there were 128 killed, and 385 injured, on all the railways in the United Kingdom. Of these, 12 passengers killed, and 335 injured, were from causes beyond their own control; 15 killed, and 7 injured, from their own misconduct or want

of caution; 8 killed, and 18 injured, servants of companies or of contractors, from causes beyond their own control; 41 killed, and 17 injured, servants killed or injured from their own misconduct or want of caution; 14 persons were killed, and 2 injured, whilst crossing at level crossings; 33 were killed, and 6 injured, being trespassers; and 5 killed from miscellaneous causes. In England and Wales there were 101 killed, and 353 injured; the length of railway open being 6,770 miles. In Scotland there were 15 killed, and 28 injured; railways open, 1,250 miles. In Ireland, 12 killed, and 4 injured; railways open, 1,071 miles. During the half-year there were 45 accidents, 41 to passenger trains, and 4 to goods and mineral trains.

LXXXVI.—RAILWAY ACCIDENTS.

Number and Nature of the Accidents and the Injuries to Life and Limb, which have occurred on all the Railways open for traffic in England and Wales, Scotland and Ireland, respectively, from the 1st of January to the 30th of June, 1858.

DURING the half-year ended 30th June, 1858, there were 143 killed and 175 injured on all the railways of the United Kingdom. Of these 10 passengers killed, and 97 injured, were from causes beyond their own control; 10 killed, and 12 injured, from their own misconduct and want of caution; 8 servants killed, and 33 injured, from causes beyond their own control, and 65 killed, and 24 injured, from their own misconduct or want of caution; 12 persons were killed, and 2 injured, whilst crossing at level crossings; 34 were killed, including three cases of suicide, and 2 injured, being trespassers; and 4 were killed from miscellaneous causes. In England and Wales there were 106 killed, and 153 injured, the railways open being 6,879 miles; in Scotland there were 27 killed and 9 injured, the railways open being 1,286 miles; and in Ireland there were 10 killed, and 13 injured, the railways open being 1,102 miles. There were in all 32 accidents, 25 to passenger trains, and 7 to goods and mineral trains.

LXXXVII.—RAILWAY ACTS.

Return of the Railway Acts passed in Sessions 1 and 2 of 1857, showing the length of each Line, the Capital Stock, the Sums authorized to be raised on Loan, and the other principal Provisions contained therein. (132.)

In the sessions of 1857 there were authorized by Acts 674 miles 54 chains of railway, with a capital of 7,722,496*l.*, and loans of 2,513,917*l.*, making a total of 10,336,413*l.* In the same year there were abandoned 19 miles 72 chains, causing a reduction of capital and loan of 370,300*l.*, so that the net capital and loan authorized by Acts passed in 1857 was 9,966,113*l.*

LXXXVIII.—HIGHWAYS.

An Abstract of the general Statements of the Receipts and Expenditure on account of the Highways of the several Parishes, Townships, &c., of England and Wales, for the Year ended 25th March, 1856.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

THE balances in hand on the 25th of March, 1855, amounted to 178,537*l.* 11*s.* 5*d.*, and the balances overspent to 91,948*l.* 16*s.* The total receipts were 2,131,460*l.* 9*s.* 2*d.*, and the total expenditure 2,149,733*l.* 5*s.* 6*d.*, leaving, on the 25th March, 1857, balances on hand 179,833*l.* 15*s.* 4*d.*, and overspent 111,517*l.* 16*s.* 3*d.*

LXXXIX.—TURNPIKE TRUSTS.

An Abstract of the general Statements of the Income and Expenditure of the several Turnpike Trusts in England and Wales, from the 1st of January, 1855, to the 31st of December, 1855, inclusive.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

THE balances in the treasurers' hands on the 1st January, 1855, amounted to 301,731*l.* 19*s.* 4*d.*, and the balances due to treasurers to 32,708*l.* 4*s.* 4*d.* The total income was 1,139,864*l.* 11*s.* 2*d.*, and the total expenditure 1,142,278*l.* 11*s.* 5*d.* The total debts amounted to 6,427,727*l.* 18*s.* 7*d.* The arrears of income were 329,977*l.* 18*s.* 7*d.*

XC.—TURNPIKE TRUSTS.

An Abstract of the general Statements of the Income and Expenditure of the several Turnpike Trusts in Scotland, between the Term of Whit-Sunday, 1855, and Whit-Sunday, 1856.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

THE balances in the treasurers' hands on last account were 116,918*l.* 5*s.* 2*d.* and the balances due to the treasurers 19,617*l.* 15*s.* 1*d.* The income amounted to 253,537*l.* 15*s.* 8*d.*; the expenditure was 252,817*l.* 9*s.* 2*d.*; and the debts, 2,377,846*l.* 18*s.* 3*d.* The total arrears of income amounted to 149,298*l.* 9*s.* 6*d.*

XCI.—CODE OF SIGNALS.

Report of the Committee appointed by the Lords of the Committee of Privy Council for Trade, to inquire into and report upon the subject of the Code of Signals to be used at Sea.

On the 2nd July, 1858, the Privy Council for Trade appointed Admiral F. W. Beechey, F.R.S.; Capt. C. R. D. Bethune, R.N.; Capt. Robert

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Fitzroy, R.N.; Capt. G. A. Halsted, R.N.; Capt. H. Bonham Bax, H.C.S.; Capt. George Denny, H.C.S.; Joseph Mondel, Esq.; W. Chapman Harnet, Esq.; and the Registrar General of Seamen, as a committee to inquire into and report upon the subject of a code of signals to be used at sea.

The Committee reported that they have examined such published codes as have from time to time been in use in the Royal Navy and the British as well as foreign merchant service. These are: Admiralty Code, 1808; Lynn's, 1818; Squire's, 1820; Admiralty, 1826; Phillips's, 1836; Rohde's, 1836; Raper's, 1828; Walker's, 1841; Roger's, American, 1854; Reynold's, French, 1855; Marryatt's, 1854. The object in view in establishing a good system of signals was not only to effect a telegraphic communication between ships, but, at the same time, to provide facilities for making ships' names or numbers. The principles laid down as the basis for the formation of an efficient code were the following: 1st. The code ought to be comprehensive and clear, and not expensive. 2nd. It ought to provide for not less than 20,000 distinct signals, and should besides be capable of designating not less than 50,000 ships, with power of extension if required. 3rd. It should express the nature of the signal made by the combination of the signs employed, and the more important signals should be expressed by the more simple combinations. 4th. A signal should not consist of more than four flags or symbols at one hoist. 5th. A signal should be made complete in one hoist, in one place. 6th. Signals should have the same meaning wherever shown. 7th. The signal-book should be so arranged, either numerically or alphabetically in classes, as to admit of the subject being readily referred to; and provisions should be made for future additions. 8th. The code should be so framed as to be capable of adaptation for international communication.

The Committee then showed how far the systems in use answered the above requirements; and having shown the principal defects of a "numerical" code, they proceeded to recommend the plan of taking a number of signs or flags sufficient for the purpose, and by their transposition effecting a certain number of permutations, each different combination of two or more of the signs so taken forming a signal distinct in itself and having a particular signification. Sixteen flags would be requisite to give the number of signals necessary, viz., 70,000 distinct signals, with power of extension to 78,642 signals, each signal consisting of a hoist of not more than four flags. Having decided that there shall be eighteen flags, a letter of the alphabet was assigned to each of them, leaving out the vowels. The advantages of the system are, first, its comprehensiveness and distinctness, the combination of the signs expressing the nature of the signal made, two flags or symbols in a hoist always meaning either danger or urgency, and the signals throughout being arranged in a consecutive series, so that any individual signal, whether a word or a sentence, may readily be found. Secondly, that the flags and pendants are so arranged, as by their position to characterize

the signals made. Thus, in signals made with two signs the burgee uppermost represents attention signals; a pendant uppermost compass signals; and a square flag uppermost represents danger signals. In signals composed of four signs, the burgee uppermost represents geographical, a pendant uppermost vocabulary, and a square flag uppermost represents ship's name. Thirdly, that the arrangement of the code is such as to hold out to foreigners the same advantages that it affords to our own marine.

XCII.—DEAD LETTER OFFICE.

Return of the Number of Letters sent to the Dead Letter Office during the Year 1857, and showing how much has been carried to the Account of the Life Insurance Fund during the Year as the Proceeds of Lost Property. (Mr. Greer.) 25th June, 1858. (360.)

DURING the year 1857, in England and Wales, there were returned to the Dead Letter Office, 2,024,057 letters, of which 1,460,791 were returned to the writers. The letters not returned were 563,266. There were in the office 25,115 letters containing money, cheques, orders, &c., to the amount of 338,539*l.* 10*s.* 2*d.*, and of these 21,792 letters, with 322,376*l.* 18*s.* 2*d.*, were returned. 3,323 letters, with 16,202*l.*, had not been as yet returned to the writers. In Scotland, there were 183,132 letters returned to the Dead Letter Office, of which 145,512 letters were returned to the writers. 37,620 letters were not yet returned to the writers. There were in the office 1,971 letters containing 41,868*l.* 2*s.* 5*d.* in money, cheques, orders, &c. Of these, 1,931 letters, with 41,861*l.* 8*s.* 2*d.*, were returned to the writers, and 40 letters, with 6*l.* 14*s.* 2*d.*, were retained two years for application. In Ireland, there were returned to the office 199,651 letters, of which 123,904 were returned to the writers. There were 75,747 letters not yet returned. There were sent to the office 3,583 letters containing cheques, money orders, &c., in the sum of 39,532*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.* Of these, 3,433 letters, with 39,109*l.* 5*s.* 6*d.*, were returned to the writers, and 150 letters, with 423*l.* 3*s.* 10*d.*, were retained two years for application.

XCIII.—RAILWAYS.

A Return of the Number and Description of Persons employed on each of the Railways in England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland respectively on the 30th June, 1858, which were at that date open for Traffic, and the length of such Railways and similar return for each Line and Branch Line of Railway which has been authorized, but which was not open for Traffic on the 30th June, 1858. (Mr. Henley.) 23rd July, 1858. (459.)

ON the 30th June, 1858, there were in the United Kingdom 9,323 miles of railway open, 1,013 miles in construction, and 3,413 miles neither open nor in course of construction, making in all, 13,749 miles, as the length

authorized. In these railways there were engaged 359 secretaries and managers, 47 treasurers, 331 engineers, 532 superintendents, 283 store-keepers, 290 accountants and cashiers, 1,390 inspectors and time-keepers, 2,679 station-masters, 447 ticket-collectors, 235 draughtsmen, 9,072 clerks, 2,444 foremen, 3,508 engine-drivers, 3,586 assistant engine-drivers and firemen, 3,747 guards and breaksmen, 3,431 switchmen, 2,084 gatekeepers, 2,385 policemen and watchmen, 17,250 porters and messengers, 8,874 platelayers, 25,675 artificers, 55,553 labourers, and 3,220 miscellaneous employment; total, 147,422.

XCIV.—MERCHANT SEAMEN'S FUND.

Account of the Receipt and Expenditure under the Seamen's Fund Winding-up Act, from 1st January to 31st December, 1857, with an Account of the Sums received and paid for the Wages and Effects of Deceased Seamen in the Year 1857. (226.)

THE receipt for the year, including the balance on the 31st December, 1856, amounted to 111,250*l.* 10*s.* 1*d.*, and the payments were 67,261*l.* 8*s.* 1*d.*, leaving a balance of 43,989*l.* 2*s.* In the year 1857 there were granted 1,159 pensions of the amount of 4,046*l.* against 1,267 pensions of 4,210*l.* 4*s.* in 1856. The pensioners in 1857 consisted of 229 masters, 248 seamen, 138 widows of masters, 237 widows of seamen, 163 children of masters, and 144 children of seamen. On the 31st December, 1857, there were 23,374 pensioners upon the fund, having an aggregate amount of pensions of 59,975*l.* 7*s.* 8*d.* On the 31st December, 1857, there remained unclaimed 52,330*l.* 18*s.* 7*d.* wages and effects of deceased seamen.

XCIV.—MERCANTILE MARINE FUND.

An Account of the Mercantile Marine Fund under the Act 17 and 18 Vict., c. 104, sec. 429, showing the Income and Expenditure for the Year 1857. (225.)

THE receipt during the year 1857, including balance on hand, amounted to 250,000*l.* Exchequer Bills, and 199,116*l.* 13*s.* 6*d.* cash, and the payment, 104,149*l.* 3*s.* 8*d.*, leaving a balance on hand of 94,967*l.* 9*s.* 10*d.* cash, besides 250,000*l.* Exchequer Bills. During the year there were received 5,552*l.* 15*s.* for fees on examination of masters and mates; 14,859*l.* 15*s.* 5*d.* fees on engagement of crews; 236*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* fees on renewal of certificates; total income, 34,997*l.* 10*s.* Other receipts, 7,757*l.* 14*s.* 2*d.* There were received for light dues, per Trinity House corporation, 268,645*l.* 18*s.* 7*d.*; per port of London corporation, 13,306*l.* 19*s.* 9*d.*; and for commissioners of northern lighthouses, 29,867*l.* 13*s.* 3*d.*

No. CXIX.—COUNTY COURT.

Return from each County Court in England and Wales of the Number of Plaints entered, Causes tried, Appeals from Decisions, Sitzings of Court, and Moneys received and paid, &c., from 1st January to 31st December, 1857. (Mr. FitzRoy.) 26th March, 1858. (445.)

In the year 1857, there were entered in all the county courts 744,652 cases, and tried 395,731. The number of causes tried above 20*l.* and not exceeding 50*l.* was 5,159. The courts have sat 9,019 days. The total amount of moneys for which the plaintiffs were entered was 1,937,745*l.*, and the amount of moneys for which judgment has been obtained, 978,592*l.* The total amount of moneys paid into court in satisfaction for debt sued for without proceedings in Parliament was 146,417*l.* 1,068 causes were tried by jury, and in 516 causes the party requiring a jury obtained a verdict. During the year 92,894 executions were issued by the registrar of the court against the goods of the defendants, 27,783 warrants of commitments were issued by the registrar, and 10,607 persons were actually taken to prison under such warrants. Since March, 1847, the number of cases entered was 5,440,080, and the number tried, 2,965,464. The total amount of fees received since 1847 was—Judges' fund, 790,672*l.*; registrar's fee, 787,776*l.*; bailiffs' fees, 557,426*l.*; general fund, 423,541*l.*: total, 2,559,415*l.* During 1857, 53 plaintiffs were entered by consent of parties, and 23 of these were tried. 20 appeals were made during the year, and 2 remained from the previous year; of these, 5 decisions were confirmed, 6 reversed, 5 dropped, and 5 remained undecided.

No. CXX.—STIPENDIARY JUDGES.

Return showing the Number of Stipendiary Judges in England and Wales, and the cost of said Judicial Establishments to the Country annually, and similar Returns for Ireland and Scotland. (Mr. Warren.) 10th June, 1858. (478.)

In England, there are 24 judges of superior courts receiving the aggregate sum of 135,000*l.*, viz., 7 judges in the Court of Chancery, 43,000*l.*; 5 judges in the Court of Queen's Bench, 28,000*l.*; 5 judges in the Court of Common Pleas, 28,000*l.*; 5 judges in the Court of Exchequer, 27,000*l.*; 1 judge of the High Court of Admiralty, 4,000*l.*; 1 judge of the Court of Probate, 5,000*l.* There were, moreover, 199 judges of inferior courts having an aggregate sum of 166,690*l.*, viz., 18 commissioners of bankruptcy and insolvency, 33,000*l.*; 60 judges of county courts, 78,000*l.*; 85 barristers for revising list of voters, 17,850*l.*; 36 magistrates, 37,240*l.*; 1 vice-chancellor of the County Palatine, Duchy of Lancaster, 600*l.*: total for England, 223 judges, receiving 301,690*l.*

In Ireland, there are 17 judges of superior courts, receiving together

64,504*l.*, viz., 2 in the Court of Chancery, 11,969*l.*; 1 in the Court of Appeal, 1,000*l.*; 4 in the Court of Queen's Bench, 16,177*l.*; 4 in the Court of Common Pleas, 15,678*l.*; 4 in the Court of Exchequer, 15,678*l.*; 1 in the Court of Probate, 3,500*l.*; and 1 in the Court of Admiralty, 500*l.* There were also 115 judges of inferior courts, receiving together 72,400*l.*, viz., 33 assistant barristers, 31,900*l.*; 3 commissioners of encumbered estates, 7,000*l.*; and 79 magistrates, 33,500*l.*: total for Ireland, 132 judges, 136,904*l.*

In Scotland, there are 13 judges of superior courts, receiving together 42,300*l.*, viz., 1 lord justice general, 4,800*l.*; 1 lord justice clerk, 4,500*l.*; and 11 lords of session and justiciary, 3,000*l.* each. There are, moreover, 81 sheriffs and sheriffs' substitutes, receiving together 53,573*l.* Total for Scotland, 94 judges, 95,873*l.*

Total for the United Kingdom, 54 judges of superior courts, 241,804*l.*; 395 judges of inferior courts, 292,663*l.*: total, 449 judges, 534,467*l.* salary.

No. CXXI—SHERIFF SMALL DEBT COURTS (SCOTLAND).

*Return from each County in Scotland, showing the Operation of the Act 16 & 17 Vict., c. 80, s. 26, extending the Jurisdiction of the Sheriff Small Debt Courts from 8*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* to Claims not exceeding 12*l.* in amount (Mr. Cowan.)* 21st May, 1857. (51.)

THE total number of cases tried for at all the courts during the year 1856 was 54,211. Of these, 46,987 were for sums not exceeding 8*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* in amount, and 7,052 cases above 8*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*, and not exceeding 12*l.* in amount.

No. CXXII—COURTS-MARTIAL.

Returns of the Number of General Courts-Martial held on Officers both at Home and Abroad in the Years 1853 to 1857 inclusive, with the Nature of the Charge, Finding, and Sentence in each Case, and of the Number of Naval Courts-Martial of every Description both at Home and Abroad during the same Period, &c. (Mr. Warren.) 27th July, 1858. (499.)

FROM 1853 to 1857, 83 officers were tried by general courts-martial at home and abroad, of whom 17 were acquitted and 66 convicted, and 17 sentences were revised. The courts sat 414 days. During the same period, 323 naval courts-martial were held. The punishment of lashes was generally awarded; some 50 and some 75 lashes. Drunkenness was punished with dismissal. Desertion was punished with 50 lashes and imprisonment for six or twelve months.

CXXIII.—POLICE (COUNTIES AND BOROUGHES).

Reports of the Inspectors of Constabulary for the Year ended 29th September 1857, made to Her Majesty's principal Secretary of State, under the provisions of the Statute 19 and 20 Vict. c. 69. (20.)

For the purposes of the Act, England was divided into three districts: the Southern district, comprising 13,491,008 statute acres, and a population (1851) of 5,341,446, under the inspection of Captain Willis; the Northern, comprising 9,114,065 statute acres, and a population of 5,233,300, under the inspection of Lieutenant-Colonel Woodford; and the Eastern Counties, Midland, and North Wales, comprising 14,539,674 statute acres, with a population of 5,457,287, under the inspection of Major-General Cartwright. In district No. 1, Eastern Counties, &c., including 25 counties, 15 had established a police force under the 2 & 3 Vict. c. 93, two of them for a portion of their counties only, namely, Warwick and Denbigh, and in those 15 counties only 9 had established a force approaching to efficiency in point of number. In the boroughs, each borough was acting upon its own individual system, and in many of them there appeared a weakness of force, want of classification, a total absence of any attempt at co-operation with neighbouring forces, and an imperfect mode of working the beats, particularly by night. The result of the general inspection was, that the counties which had been deficient in number or in other respects, were so increased and improved as to be efficient, and that new counties had not only organized their forces, but the chief constables, displaying great activity, had allocated their police constables throughout their various divisions. The total police force of the district on the 1st of October, 1857, was: counties, 2,742; boroughs, 1,226: total, 3,968; showing an increase of 1,340 over the force of 1856.

In the northern district, Cheshire, with a population of 294,722, exclusive of boroughs, with 693,415 acres, and a valuation of 1,374,229*l.*, had an establishment of 173 officers and men. Durham, population 249,867, area 608,902 acres, valuation 971,000*l.*, total strength 199 officers and men. Lancaster, population 927,201, area 1,158,266 acres, valuation 3,288,412*l.*, total strength 657 officers and men. Northumberland, population 171,485, area 1,131,175 acres, valuation 1,053,823*l.*, total strength 61 officers and men. East Riding of York, population 127,378, area 704,101 acres, valuation 1,017,607*l.*, strength of the establishment 64 men. West Riding of Yorkshire, population 804,372, area 1,615,785 acres, valuation 2,735,898*l.*, authorized strength 487 officers and men. York, North Riding, population 196,194, area 1,278,794 acres, valuation 1,198,615*l.*, authorized strength 105 officers and men. Cumberland and Westmoreland, population 217,092, area 1,482,863 acres, valuation 909,406*l.*, establishment 74 men. The whole force of the counties comprising the Northern Constabulary District was 1,929 officers and men. In the towns and cities the proportion of constabulary varied considerably. In Liverpool there was 1 constable to 393 inhabitants, in Manchester 1 in 547, in Birmingham 1 in 617, in Hull 1 in

682, in Sheffield 1 in 768, in Leeds 1 in 779, and in Newcastle-upon-Tyne 1 in 820 inhabitants.

Captain Willis, Inspector of Constabulary for the southern district, reported as follows:—

The district comprises 19 counties, containing, with the 2 distinct police forces of East and West Sussex, 20 county police establishments, and 81 police establishments of boroughs and towns which maintain independent management, and in regard to which there were 53 which in the year 1851 contained a population exceeding 5,000 persons, and 28 in which the population was less than 5,000 persons.

With respect to the counties, there were 8 forces which are considered to have been efficient in organization and number during the whole year, from 30th September, 1856, to the 29th September, 1857; 8, which were only formed after the 29th of September, 1856, were considered to have been efficient for a portion of the year; and 4 were considered to have been too small in number: but with respect to these, 2 have augmented the number of the police since the 29th of September, 1857, and propositions will be submitted to the next quarter sessions for an augmentation of one of the other forces, and which, if carried into effect, will place this establishment in an efficient state; in one county the police committee decline to propose any augmentation for the consideration of the quarter sessions.

As regards the 53 boroughs and towns which in the year 1851 contained a population exceeding 5,000, there were 19 police forces which were considered to have been effective in organization and number during the whole year; 5 have reorganized and increased the number of the police, as recommended, during the year; 14 were considered to be generally well organized but deficient in numbers; 1 was stated to have been chiefly defective in organization; and 14 were reported to have been ineffective both as to organization and number during the year; 3, however, of the forces which were named as being merely deficient in number, and 1 in the last-named category, have, since the 29th day of September, 1857, augmented the number of police to the extent recommended, and are now considered to be in an efficient state.

As respects the 28 boroughs which in 1851 contained a population of less than 5,000 persons, there were 5 which were reported to have maintained a sufficient number of constables, 3 have since augmented the number of the police, 3 have consented to take into consideration the recommendation for an increase, 10 have given no answer to the proposition which was made to them to increase the number of the police, and 7 have declined to make any augmentation; one, however, of the last-named 7 has since reported that the borough is about to unite with the county for police purposes. With respect to the general duties of county police forces, in some instances the superintendents undertake, and with much benefit to the county, the duties of inspectors of weights and measures, of nuisances and lodging-houses, and in some instances of relieving officers of vagrants; and in several forces the police also act in aid of the excise and customs.

No. CXXVL—INSURRECTION IN THE EAST INDIES.

Further Papers (8) in continuation of No. 6, relative to the Insurrection in the East Indies, presented to both Houses of Parliament, by command of Her Majesty.

ON the 9th January, 1858, the Governor-General of India in Council transmitted to the Court of Directors of the East India Company a continuation of the narrative of events at different stations in the Presidency of BENGAL, forwarded with the letter of the 24th December, 1857.

Allahabad.—Brigadier Campbell had an action on the 5th January, with the rebel Nazim, near Secundra, killing upwards of 350 of the insurgents. Our loss was only one private killed, and one sepoy wounded, and fifteen horses killed and wounded. The Engineers have received instructions with unlimited authority to provide accommodation for 4,000 European soldiers.

Allyghur.—Lieutenant-Colonel Seaton left Delhi on the 6th December with a column escorting an immense convoy of provisions, stores, and establishments for the camp of the Commander-in-Chief. This convoy he left under the guns of the Fort at Allyghur on the 11th, and proceeded into the district against the insurgents. He engaged them at Gungeree on the 14th, and at Putteealla on the 17th, utterly routing them, and inflicting a heavy loss on both occasions, capturing in all fifteen guns, which have been sent into Allyghur. Colonel Seaton reached Mynpoorie, which he re-occupied on the 27th December, took six guns, and cut up 250 of the enemy, who retreated; none killed, it is believed, on our side. The greater part of the grain and flour has been stored at Allyghur, but on carts ready to be sent on at a moment's notice, and on the spare elephants and camels; the tents, quilts, blankets, doolie bearers, hospital, and barrack establishments, and such things as are most required by European troops recently arrived, are ordered down to join Lieutenant-Colonel Seaton at Mynpoorie. It is since reported that Colonel Seaton's column has reached Bewar, and that a communication has been opened with the Commander-in-Chief's camp.

Azimghur.—The magistrate of Azimghur reports that firing was heard in the direction of Goruckpore during the 4th of January.

Barrackpore (Fort William).—The 70th Regiment Native Infantry has sailed for Hong Kong in the transport *Mauritius*, and her Majesty's steam frigate *Adventure*. The recruit dépôt at Barrackpore has been broken up, and the men sent up the country. The following vessels with troops have arrived since the 24th ultimo :—The steamer *Hydaspes* on the 28th December, with Royal Artillery on board; the mail steamer *Bengal*, on the 31st December, with two sergeants, two corporals, and twenty sappers, from Malta; the steamer *Cleopatra*, and ship *Defiance*, on the 8th instant, from Madras, the former with 66 camp followers, 11 tattoos, and 114 bullocks, and the latter with 431 camp followers, 61 bullocks, and 13 tattoos.

Benares.—All quiet; arrangements are in progress for the erection of barracks and accommodation for the European troop establishment to be located at this station.

Bhopaul.—The Bombay column crossed the Nerbudda into the Bhopaul territory on the 8th December.

Cawnpore.—A column under the command of Brigadier Walpole, of the Rifle Brigade, left Cawnpore on the 18th December, and occupied Etawah on the 29th. The insurgents fled towards Furruckabad. The Commander-in-Chief left Cawnpore on the 24th December, for the advance on Futteghur, which he reached and occupied on the 3rd instant. On the 2nd, the rebels attacked the working party who were repairing the bridge over the Kallie Nuddea on the road to Futteghur, which had been previously destroyed, but were repulsed with heavy loss, after a skirmish of some duration; all their guns, seven in number, were captured in the pursuit. Inroads have been made into the Cawnpore district by the rebels from Calpee and from Oude, but not in large force. A good deal of miscellaneous property belonging to the Nana has been captured in the district, and at Bithoor some gold and silver plate has been recovered from a well, and more is expected.

Chittagong.—All quiet.

Chuprah.—A large number of rebels are said to have collected at Burhal, supposed to be desirous of escaping from Goruckpore into Behar.

Chyebassa.—A small detachment of Sikh volunteers, under the command of Captain Hale, left Chyebassa on the 25th to quell an insurrection amongst a portion of the Cole tribes. He came upon a body of them about 2,000 strong the same day, and dispersed them, inflicting some loss on them. On proceeding to the north-west of Chyebassa, he found that they had entirely left that part of the country; but hearing that they were collecting to the southward, and threatening an advance on Chyebassa, he returned to that place, and as soon as he can obtain correct information, he hopes to attack and disperse them. This insurrection is not thought to be a general rising of the Cole tribes, as many of their head men, with their

followers, have come in upon the order of the civil authority—but the insurgents number about 5,000; and though they can easily be dispersed, Captain Hall cannot with his small available force surround them and make a signal example of them.

Dacca.—All quiet. The Sylhet Light Infantry met the Chittagong rebels at Satoo, in the Sylhet district, on the 18th December, and defeated them, killing thirty-eight; the remainder fled into the jungles. Our loss was very slight, but Major the Hon. R. P. Byng, commanding the Sylhet Light Infantry, was unfortunately mortally wounded, and died on the same day. The Sylhet Infantry came across these mutineers again on the 1st January. They were retreating towards Munninpoor. They again defeated them with loss, and are still in pursuit of them. The Sylhet Infantry, including the Hindostanees of the corps, behaved admirably.

Delhi.—A detailed report of the action fought by the column under Lieutenant-Colonel Gerrard with the Joudpore Legion, accompanies this narrative. This took place at Namool on the 16th of November, and not on the 4th, as previously supposed. The enemy numbered about 1,000 infantry, 2,500 cavalry, and 8 guns. They were defeated with the loss of their guns, and about 350 killed and wounded, 300 bodies having been counted in the field. Our loss was six officers wounded (Colonel Gerrard, mortally, and died the same day), and seventy-six non-commissioned rank and file killed and wounded. The Nawab of Jhuggur has been hanged. The Commander-in-Chief arrived at and re-occupied this place on the 3rd January. It was found evacuated by the rebels who had fled on the night of the 2nd, after their defeat at the Kallie Nuddea. It is said that they took away three guns. The heavy guns were found in position, and a considerable amount of stores belonging to the gun-carriage and clothing agencies have been recovered. His Excellency was also in communication with Colonel Seaton's column.

Futtehpoore.—A small party under the command of Colonel Barker, Royal Artillery, left Futtehpoore on the 11th December for the purpose of clearing out some villages, the inhabitants of which were known to be disaffected, and notorious, not only for harbouring mutineers and turbulent characters, but for arming themselves and driving off the police. This has been most successfully done, the known bad villages having been destroyed; a few armed men were shot in some of them, and many prisoners taken, some of whom have been executed, and others made over to the civil authorities. After the first village was surprised, the men spread, and they were for the most part found evacuated; the inhabitants of the good villages alone remaining in their houses; the number of boats on the Jumna facilitated the escape of the rebels. The column took a circuitous route in order to exhibit the troops to the inhabitants of the district, and returned to Futtehpoore on the 17th. The movement has been of much benefit, revenue having been sent in and supplies promised, and the magistrate anticipates no difficulty in re-establishing his police in most of the places visited.

Goruckpoore.—Brigadier-General MacGregor joined the camp of the Goorkha army on the 23rd December, at Bettial; on the 30th the whole of Jung Bahadoor's force had completed the passage of the Gunduck. One brigade was in advance, and the rebels had retired to Captain-gunge. The whole force was expected to reach Goruckpoore on the 5th or 6th of January. A party of the Goruckpoore rebels were attacked on the 27th December by the force under Colonel Rowcroft, and the Naval Brigade under Captain Sotheby, and driven back to Mughhowlie with the loss of three out of four guns, ammunition, camp, &c. No officer touched on our side.

Jaunpoore.—Brigadier-General Franks' force is divided into three columns. One opposite Aalimghur, another in the centre, a few miles in advance of Jaunpoore, and the third farther to the westward at Budlapore; each consists of a European regiment, 1,000 Goorkhas, and six guns, besides two 18-pounders, with the centre column. The rebels are committing excesses in the district, about 120 miles from Jaunpoore.

Jelpigoree.—A party, under Captain the Hon. E. G. Curzon, which had gone out in pursuit of the Dacca rebels, was still at Phollaree on the 27th December, not having been able to come across them; but it was reported that Mr. Yule had started with a party to attack them. It appears that he missed the main body, but came across a few stragglers; they were in full flight towards the west; this was on the 28th. On the same night news came in that a small body of rebels, who had not crossed with the remainder, were about to cross at a small ghat near camp; a small party were detached and concealed to attack them on landing. This they did, but owing to imperfect light were unable to disperse the whole of the eleven who landed: four were killed and one made prisoner; he was afterwards hanged. The remainder escaped.

Jubbulpore.—All quiet at Jubbulpore. The first portion of the column was expected to arrive early in January, when they hoped to attack Bijryrajghur.

Lahore.—All quiet in the Punjab.

Lucknow.—Sir J. Outram attacked a party of the enemy on the 22nd December, and dispersed them, capturing four guns, with several waggons of ammunition and an elephant. Our loss was trifling. The insurgents in Lucknow are said to be strongly fortifying themselves, especially at the Kaiser Bagh.

Midnapore.—All quiet.

Meerut.—A party of Europeans and Goorkhas are watching the ghats of the Ganges in the neighbourhood of Hardwar, but it is not expected that the rebels will make any attempt to cross from Rohilkund.

Mirzapore.—The 47th Native Infantry has received orders to come down to the Presidency for the purpose of embarking for foreign service (China). This corps is one of those raised for "general service," and subject at any time to be ordered on foreign service. It has of late, however, repeatedly expressed its desire to be sent, and is now under orders.

Nagode.—Captain Osborne carried the city of Myhere by storm on the 29th December, and took the fort of Myhere on the 3rd January. Mohund Sing is a prisoner. Captain Osborne intended to send the main body of his force to besiege Bijryrajghur.

Nagpore.—All reported quiet in this province.

Patna.—All quiet.

Saugor.—All safe in the fort; the district is still disturbed, and will remain so until the arrival of troops, shortly expected from the Madras and Bombay columns.

Trunk Road.—The trunk road is now open to Mynpoorie, for which place the mail cart has again started from Cawnpore.

On the 23rd January, the Governor-General of India in Council sent to the Court of Directors of the East India Company a continuation of the narrative forwarded on the 9th instant, taken from correspondence and messages by the electric telegraph, of what has occurred at different stations in this Presidency, in connection with the disturbed state of affairs.

Agra.—All is quiet at Agra and its neighbourhood; many of the Government officials, merchants, and other European residents have returned to their former houses, and resumed their former occupations. The Civil Governor of Agra has now come under the Lieutenant-Governor, and the extraordinary powers hitherto held by Lieutenant-Colonel Fraser, as Chief Commissioner, have ceased.

Allahabad.—The detailed report of Brigadier Campbell's attack on the insurgents on the 5th January, and noticed in the last narrative, accompanies the present one. The remainder of the Lucknow fugitives, with the exception of six or eight who were sick, left Allahabad for Calcutta on the 11th January. They are proceeding by the river route, and will arrive in Calcutta in a few days. Brigadier Campbell, having sent a party of Sikhs from Allahabad across the river, established a post at Phoolpore, which has been forthwith re-opened by the civil power; two squadrons of the 2nd Dragoon Guards and four Horse-Artillery guns were to leave on the 22nd to reinforce General Franks' separate column, which has advanced to Secundra for the purpose of attacking the rebel Nazim at Suroon.

Allyghur.—Major Eld, commanding in this district, has moved out towards Atroulee, to check the rebels at Ramghat, where they are said to be collecting, and, having brought down guns, were firing across the river; though it is not considered likely that they will effect a lodgment on the right bank of the Ganges, still their attempts and repeated intentions have a harassing effect on the district, especially since the march downwards of Grant's, Greathed's, and Seaton's columns, which has so greatly weakened the available force in this and the Meerut districts.

Azimghur.—The road between this station and Goruckpore has been re-opened and the dak re-established. Brigades have been despatched into the interior of the districts, by Jung Bahadur, to put down insurgent chiefs and support the civil administration.

Banda (Calpee).—The mutineers at Calpee muster, it is said, about 5,000 men, having been joined by many fugitives from Futteghur. They are also said to have two heavy guns, besides six field pieces. The Rajah of Cheekane has detached a force of 1,600 men, with four guns, to attack a body of 500 of these mutineers, who have taken possession of Julapore, on the Betwa, near Calpee. The brother and nephew of the Nana are said to be on the right bank of the Jumna. A considerable force, consisting, it is said, of seven regiments and fourteen guns, has gone from the Banda direction to Chilla Tora Ghat, on the Jumna, and was reported to be still in that vicinity on the 14th January.

Barrackpore (Fort William).—Several ships have arrived with troops since the departure of the last mail.

Bareilly.—It is said that Meerza Koohuk, the son of the King of Delhi, and also Walee Dad Khan, who were guests of the Nawab of Furruckabad, have, since the re-occupation of Futteghur, joined Khan Bahadoor Khan, at Bareilly.

Benares.—All quiet in this district.

Bolundshur.—A letter from Bolundshur, of the 12th January, states that a body of the Rohilcund insurgents continue opposite Anoopshuhur, under the command of Goolgeer Alee, the rebel Synd of Amrohah, who has been appointed a General by Khan Bahadoor. They had for some days remained inactive, but were closely watched by Colonel Farquhar, commanding in the district, and Mr. Sapte, the magistrate.

Cawnpore.—This district is still disturbed by the mutineers from Calpee, who, after the murder of the Central Police Establishment at Secundra, threatened an attack on the Tahseeldar of Dehra Mahalpoore, but it was withdrawn in time. Brigadier Carthew is to move from Ghauturpoore to Bhogneepore, opposite Calpee, and Colonel Kelly is to move on Akbar-

pore to support him. A moveable column is being organized by Brigadier Inglis, at Cawnpore, for the purpose of marching about the district in aid of the civil power.

Chyebassa.—Captain Hale, commanding the Sikh Volunteers, had an encounter with a large body of insurgent Coles, numbering about 5,000 men, on the 14th January, about twenty-two miles from Chyebassa. He dispersed one body, which he dislodged from a village and burnt it; but, owing to the density of the jungle, and to having been misled by his guide, he was necessitated to return to his camp, from whence it was determined to return to Chyebassa, as it was feared his communication might be cut off. Mounting his wounded men on the spare elephants, the party returned to Chyebassa, being much annoyed on the road by the Coles, who were, however, kept in check by the rearguard. Altogether, two men were killed and twenty-five wounded, including all the officers attached to the party, civil and military; but the Coles are estimated to have lost 150 killed and wounded.

Delhi.—The Rajah of Bullubghur was hanged on the 9th January. An extensive capture of rebels is said to have been made on the same date at Shadeera and Kudreim Sheereef.

Futtehghur.—The Commander-in-Chief is still at Futtehghur, making all the necessary arrangements for an eventual move. His Excellency has detached one battalion to Mynpoorie, and another to a post between Cawnpore and Futtehghur; a brigade has moved out into the district to inflict punishment. Large quantities of stores belonging to the gun-carriage and clothing agencies have been found untouched, and arrangements are in progress for reorganizing both. The Nawab set fire to his palace before leaving, and what remains is being blown up by our engineers. One of the Nawab's family was given up by the townspeople, and has been hanged. A brigade was despatched from Futtehghur, on the 6th January, to visit the very mutinous villages in the district, Shumshabad and Mhow; and, having accomplished the object of the expedition, has returned to Futtehghur.

Ghazeepore.—A body of sepoy mutineers having endeavoured to cross the Gogra at Tullesh, and to pass through the Ghazeepore district, a light force was sent out from Ghazeepore to make a demonstration, which had the desired effect, the mutineers retiring from the Gogra inland. The Ghazeepore district is perfectly tranquil.

Goruckpore.—This place was re-occupied on the 6th January by the force under Jung Bahadoor. The resistance was feeble, and the enemy were driven across the Raptée with the loss of seven guns and 200 killed. The Goorkha loss was trifling, two killed and seven wounded. No British officers hit. The country is friendly and supplies abundant, and the civil administration being fast re-established. Brigades having been detached into the districts to put down insurgent chiefs, one of the chief leaders of the rebels, Mushruff Khan, is said to have been captured.

Jaunpore.—The force on the frontier is composed, according to the best information obtainable, of men armed principally with matchlocks and swords, and with a few muskets, in a military sense, a mere rabble, yet composed of men of the military classes, accustomed to the use of arms, and capable of a certain resistance. Their artillery has been, in some instances, well served; but the guns are of an old and miscellaneous description, and chiefly of small calibre. The force under Brigadier Franks is considered ample, not only to keep the district of Azimghur and Jaunpore from aggression, but also to restore the civil government if made use of for that purpose. General Franks' left column went to Secundra on the 21st. It will be joined immediately by two squadrons of the 2nd Dragoon Guards and four Horse-Artillery guns from Allahabad, and an attack will then be made on the rebel Nazim at Sorao. The rebels towards the Gogra seem to be increasing in number, being, doubtless, reinforced by fugitives from Goruckpore.

Jelpigoree.—Captain Curzon's party returned to Jelpigoree on the 1st January, having been unsuccessful in their attempt to meet the Dacca mutineers. He speaks highly of the good behaviour of his detachment, especially of the men of the 73rd Native Infantry, who performed willingly every duty assigned them; and, on more than one occasion, gave up, unasked, their supplies to the Europeans when theirs ran short. One sepoy of the 73rd, by name Deoram Doobey, side by side with a Goorkha, cut down a mutineer on the only occasion on which the detachment came up with any of them.

Lahore.—All is reported quiet in the Punjab.

Lucknow.—Sir James Outram was attacked on the 16th by a large force, led on by a Hindoo fanatic, Beduheadas Hunnooman, who was severely wounded and taken prisoner. Our loss was trifling; that of the rebels severe. This is the second attack within three days. The Nana is said to be at Lucknow; and it is reported that Sharafud Dowlah has been dismissed from his post of Prime Minister to the Begum, Munnoo Khan having taken his place.

Mhow.—The 1st Brigade of Sir Hugh Rose's column is at this station. It will march along the Agra road, and will co-operate with the 2nd Brigade at Goonah.

Nagpore.—All is quiet in this province. The Commissioner reports, on the 10th January, that he was starting off 6,000 slaughter-bullocks, and 2,000 carriage-bullocks, to Allahabad, and hoped in a few days to despatch 100 horses in the same direction. Major-General Whitlock reached Kamptee on the 10th January, with a portion of his column.

Nynee Tal.—Major Ramsay, the Commissioner of Kemoan, has 1,000 foot, 666 Goorkhas, 250 Nepal Goorkhas, and 150 new levies, but only 50 men fit for service, out of 300 newly

raised horse. He has a few light field guns, and some mountain guns, and two howitzers of the latter description mounted on elephants. He is about to commence operations for clearing the Serai, which would otherwise afford dangerous shelter for the fugitive rebels.

Oude.—A force of 5,000 matchlock-men are reported to be at Roy Bareilly, in Oude, and to have sent two companies of sepoy on to Dalmon to collect supplies.—For all other news, see under Lucknow.

Patna.—All quiet.

Rohilcund.—It is said that there is great disorder and much dissension among the rebels in this province, especially since the re-occupation of Futtehghur. Many of the chiefs have left, some for Lucknow and others for Central India, and others are in a great state of alarm and confusion. Bodies of insurgents are still collected, however, on some of the ghats on the Ganges, as reported under Allyghur and Bolundshuhur. On the 1st January, a party of the Bareilly insurgents, 1,000 strong, with two guns, attacked Huldwanee, but were driven off with loss by a party of 66 Goorkhas and Nepaul Goorkhas. A strong party of the insurgents is still posted on the road between Bareilly and Huldwanee, reported to be about 4,000, with two guns. The object of this force seems to be less that of attack, than to prevent communication between Nynsee Tal and the plains. Supplies from the plains have been stopped, and the latter post rendered uncertain. The Nawab of Rampore, who has proved himself a most faithful subject and ally, expresses no doubt but that he could subdue this force with his own troops, and is ready to order them out, if directed; but the expediency of his doing so is doubtful.

Saugor.—The Bundeelas from Bapyle having, on the 12th December, endeavoured to cut off the grass-cutters attached to the 3rd Irregular Cavalry, a small force was sent out to punish them. On arriving at the village, it was found occupied, and the rebels opened fire on the detachment, which was, however, soon put down, and the village carried and plundered. As the insurgents were shortly reinforced in considerable numbers, our party returned to Saugor, having carried out the orders given, and any further operations appearing imprudent. The loss of the rebels was estimated at 100 killed and wounded; ours was only eleven killed and wounded. Sir Hugh Rose was to be at Saugor on the 15th January with the 2nd brigade of his column, and was to move upon Jhansi.

Seharunpore.—The Begnure insurgents, who had been attempting incursion into the Seharunpore and Mozuffernuggur districts, and who, on the 8th January, carried off a telegraphic signaller and two native Christians, received a decisive check on or about the 10th January, at Mozapore, near the head of the Ganges Canal, in the Sarunpore district. Captain Boisragon, with 70 Sikhs and Goorkhas, and 10 Europeans, and two guns, fell in with 1,000 of them and completely dispersed them; 100 were killed, and, the Mozapore dam having been opened to cut off their escape, many more were drowned. A man of rank, supposed to be the Nawab Alunee Doolia, was wounded, and his nephew killed by Captain Boisragon himself.

Sumbulpore.—This place has been relieved, and the road between that place and Raepore has been opened, and the whole of the Raepore district has been cleared of rebels. The force engaged in this service consisted of a detachment of the Nagpore Irregular Cavalry, of the 3rd Nagpore Irregular Infantry, and two guns of the Horse Battery, the whole under the command of the Baron Von Myem; together with a detachment of the 40th Madras Native Infantry from Cuttack. The troops behaved admirably. Several of the passes were carried, and the enemy suffered heavy loss, besides many prisoners and spies taken. Our own loss was most trifling. Our own zemindars, in the Raepore district, behaved most loyally.

Sylhet.—The Sylhet Light Infantry have continued to behave most admirably, following up the Chittagong mutineers, who have been completely disorganized, the few left having hid in the jungles, and they will probably fall into the hands of the troops of the Munceepore Rajah. In consequence of the admirable conduct of the Sylhet Light Infantry, the commissioners have dispensed with the services of the detachment of Her Majesty's 54th Regiment, which has returned to Dacca, and from thence is to be sent to Calcutta.

On the 9th of February, the President of the Council of India sent to the Court of Directors of the East India Company, a continuation of the narrative forwarded on the 23rd ultimo, taken from correspondence and messages by the electric telegraph, of what has occurred at different stations in this Presidency, in connection with the disturbed state of affairs.

Agra.—The Agra Mounted Police (350 sabres) have been placed temporarily at the disposal of Brigadier Seaton, commanding in the Futtehghur district. A siege train left on the 22nd to join the Commander-in-Chief. The reports from the North-Western Provinces are highly satisfactory.

Allahabad.—The Governor-General arrived at Allahabad on the morning of the 4th, and is in camp within the fort. The Commander-in-Chief had come down on a visit to Lord Canning, and left again for Cawnpore on the morning of the 8th of February.

Allyghur.—Nothing of importance. Orders have been given for a native corps to be raised at this station.

Banda.—The political agent in Bundelcund reports having issued rewards for the apprehension of Mortando Rao Tanda, the supposed nephew of the Nana, and some others now associated with him. He had been issuing orders to the jagheerdars, calling for supplies of money and men for the Nana's troops collecting at Calpee.

Barrackpore (Fort William).—Her Majesty's 35th Foot is under orders for Dinapore, and marches up immediately, on being relieved by Her Majesty's 19th Regiment, from Fort William, which will be replaced by Her Majesty's 54th Regiment. Several vessels with troops, horses, &c., have arrived since the departure of the last mail. The Governor-General, accompanied by the secretaries in the foreign and military departments, and his personal staff, left Calcutta for the North-Western Provinces on the 28th January.

Cawnpore.—His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief arrived at Cawnpore on the 3rd. Active operations have been making for the advance on Lucknow. A second bridge has been constructed for the easier passage of the siege train across the Ganges, without a halt. A portion of troops crossed into Oude on the 4th.

Chyebassa.—Colonel Forster has arrived with the Shekhawattée Battalion in this district, and is arranging to put down the insurgent Coles, and restore order.

Delhi.—In consequence of the indisposition of the king, his examination before the military commissioners had to be postponed; it is now believed to be going on. The Nawab of Furrucknuggur was convicted and executed. Major-General Penny has been directed to remove his head-quarters to Meerut, and Her Majesty's 60th Rifles has also left Delhi for Meerut, in order to form part of a moveable column.

Futteghur.—Brigadier the Honourable A. Hope was sent out by the Commander-in-Chief on the night of the 26th, to attack a large body of the Rohilcund rebels, which had congregated and taken up a position near Shumshabad, in the Futteghur district. He came upon them on the morning of the 27th, and completely dispersed them, after a short, though sharp resistance. They abandoned their guns and entrenchments in confusion, with the loss of about 300 men killed and wounded, with several chiefs. We captured four guns and a considerable quantity of ammunition. Our own loss comparatively trifling—one officer and three men killed, five officers and thirty-four men wounded, and three missing. The arrangement for the protection of the Futteghur district having been completed by the Commander-in-Chief, his Excellency left for Cawnpore on the 1st. Brigadier Seaton commands in the Futteghur district, and has her Majesty's 8th and 82nd Regiments, and one battery of Royal Artillery. Orders have been given to raise a native corps at Futteghur. It is hoped that the punishment inflicted at Shumshabad, with the appearance of strength left in these districts, will be sufficient for the safety of the communication till the reinforcements sent by Sir J. Lawrence to Major-General Penny, with a view to active operations in Rohilcund, may reach that officer.

Gorruckpore.—It has been arranged that his Excellency Jung Bahadoor's force shall advance into Oude at the same time with the troops under General Franks. These columns will act in concert with the force under his Excellency the Commander-in-Chief. All is settling down in the Gorruckpore district.

Jaunpore.—The left column of Brigadier-General Franks' force (the Jaunpore field force) went out from Secundra on the 23rd, and attacked the rebel Nazim at Nurselpore, to which place he had moved from Sosawun, and joined the talookdar of Nurselpore. This stronghold was taken possession of and destroyed, and the enemy driven out with the loss of about 500 killed and wounded, with the whole of his camp equipage and ammunition and three guns. The enemy's force consisted of about 8,000 men, with fourteen guns. In consequence of the density of the jungle, and the difficult nature of the ground, the action of our cavalry was much impeded, and the rebels were enabled to withdraw most of the guns. They have now retreated across the frontier, and Sosawun has been occupied by the civil power. In this engagement our loss was trifling. General Franks speaks highly of the steadiness of the troops, and of the intelligence of the Goorkha commander. General Franks' force is to move on to Sultanpore in Oude, in order to co-operate with his Excellency Jung Bahadoor.

Jelpigoree.—Upon the withdrawal of the European convalescent detachment from Jelpigoree, their place will be supplied by the detachment of European seamen from Rungpore.

Lahore.—All is quiet in the Punjab.

Lucknow.—Active operations are making for the reduction of this place. The first portion of the Commander-in-Chief's force crossed the Ganges, from Cawnpore, on the 4th of February. Report says that great dissension prevails amongst the rebels in the city, and that many are leaving.

Malwa.—The fort of Rutghur was evacuated, and occupied by us on the 28th January. Fazel Mahomed Khan was taken prisoner trying to escape, and was to be hanged over the gateway. Major Orr, with a portion of the Hyderabad Contingent, reached Goona on the 22nd January; the country was quiet and the road open.

Meerut.—Major-General Penny's head-quarters are again to be formed at Meerut, where a force will be collected and organized for operations in Rohilcund. Her Majesty's 64th Regiment have been placed at Major-General Penny's disposal, and are to hold Bolund-

shuhur, with a wing of the Belooch Battalion and the Affghan Horse. After providing for the safety of Delhi and Meerut, Major-General Penny will be able, irrespectively of the troops now employed in the Mozuffernuggur district, to form a moveable column for service in any direction, consisting of twelve field guns, two heavy howitzers, two squadrons of dragoons, the Towanna Horse, 300 men of her Majesty's 60th Rifles, 200 of the Sirmoor Battalion, and one regiment Punjaub Infantry, 600 strong.

Mynpoorie.—Her Majesty's 38th Regiment, now at Mynpoorie, are escorting the siege-train (from Agra) to Cawnpore, having been replaced by a portion of her Majesty's 8th Foot. A native corps is about to be raised either at this station or at Etawah.

Nagpore.—A detachment of about fourteen men of the Irregular Horse battery, which had arrived at Raepore from Nagpore, mutinied on the 18th January, cutting down the sergeant-major (who died shortly after of his wounds), and seized the two post guns. They endeavoured to incite the men of the 3rd Nagpore Irregular Cavalry at Raepore, about 200 in number, to join; but, failing this, gave themselves up, and were immediately to be tried. The murderer of the sergeant-major was a magazine Lascar, who has escaped for the present, but a reward has been offered for his apprehension. It is hoped that this affair is at an end, though some anxiety is felt regarding the other detachments in the district. All precautions have been taken that were possible, and General Whitlock has been requested to send such aid from his division to Raepore as he may consider required under the circumstances.

Oude.—A post has been formed at Onao, and Bunnee has been much strengthened by the Commander-in-Chief in anticipation of the advance upon Lucknow.

Rajpootana.—The fort of Aliwa, in Rajpootana, has been evacuated and occupied by us.

Saugor.—Sir Hugh Rose must have arrived at Saugor about the end of January, though no direct intelligence has reached of his having done so.

Trank Road (Sasseram).—Lieutenant-Colonel Michel has been appointed to the command of the force in this place, consisting of a detachment of her Majesty's 54th Foot, a portion of the Bengal Police Battalion, and some Royal and Madras Artillery, and which will be employed in clearing the southern portion of the Shahabad district. Lieutenant-Colonel Michel has been empowered to increase the reward already offered for Ummer Sing to any sum not exceeding 5,000 rupees, at any time which it may be thought expedient to do so.

On the 18th February, 1858, the Governor-General of India sent to the Court of Directors of the East India Company, a narrative of events in the disturbed districts, compiled from information received from the authorities in those districts.

Agra.—Communication by telegraph re-established 30th January, 1858.

Allahabad.—The Governor-General arrived on the 4th February, 1858, and is in camp in the fort. The Commander-in-Chief came in on the 8th instant, and returned to Cawnpore the same day.

Benares.—Thirty-one prisoners broke jail on the 9th instant, and cut down the jemadar; twenty-six mutineers; eleven were shot, three died of wounds, thirteen caught and hanged, and four common prisoners are missing.

Cawnpore.—A fresh inroad of the rebels is reported in the district from Calpee. A troop of Royal Horse Artillery, 7th Hussars, and the 79th Highlanders crossed the Ganges on the 4th of February, 1858, under the command of Brigadier W. Campbell, and have been ordered to proceed to Busserut Gunge, and there await further instruction. A force consisting of the 3rd Troop, 3rd Brigade Horse Artillery, 9th Lancers, and 1st Bengal Fusiliers, also crossed the river on the 6th instant, and proceeded to Onao. The heavy train has crossed the Ganges. 500 infantry and about twenty sowars crossed the Ganges between Bihonhar and Sewrajpore, and it is to be feared the Nana or his brother is with them. They have taken the direction of Sheolie and Secundra. In consequence of a gathering of rebels at the various ghauts, Colonel Maxwell, with the 88th Regiment, has been moved from Akbarpore to Sheolie, and Brigadier Walpole back to Chowbypore. The disposition of the force for arresting any movement across the river has been entrusted to the latter officer; he has three regiments of infantry, 500 sowars, and twelve guns under his command. The Commander-in-Chief's plan for moving on Lucknow is as follows:—Six regiments of infantry and two of cavalry are echeloned along the road to Bunnee, for its safeguard; the leading portion will most likely arrive there on the 13th February, and his Excellency's camp will probably be formed on the 17th or 18th instant, at Buntara (four miles beyond Bunnee), on which the remaining regiments will close up; in the meantime Brigadier-General Grant, C.B., has been directed to beat up the village of Poorwa, to the eastward of the Bunnee Road, and other expeditions may have to be made for dispersing bodies of insurgents on both sides of the road. It was Rao Sahib, the Nana's nephew, who crossed the Ganges at Nana Mow Ghaut (between Bellour and Sewrajpore), and it is reported that the Nana himself meditates a like attempt at the head of some 2,000 men. Maun Sing has given notice to Brigadier-General MacGregor.

that such an attempt is to be made by the Nana. On the 14th of February the effective force under the personal command of the Commander-in-Chief was as follows:—Naval Brigade, 431; artillery, 1,745; engineers, 865; cavalry (European and Native), 3,169; infantry (European and Native), 12,498. Total, 18,708.

Some alarm having been excited by the gathering of the insurgents at the various ghauts of the Ganges, between Futtehghur and Cawnpore, Brigadier Walpole has been ordered to retrace his steps some twenty miles up the Grand Trunk Road, and combine with Lieutenant-Colonel Maxwell, C.B., at Sheolie, for the purpose of intercepting any large body that might attempt to cross from Oude. Brigadier Seaton, C.B., had considered it necessary to stop the convoy of ladies and families which left Agra on the 11th February. The rebel leaders in Rohilcund and Oude appear to wish to take advantage of the absence of the bulk of our forces at Lucknow to excite new disturbances in the Doab. And the Commander-in-Chief has deemed it necessary to send a strong brigade, under Brigadier-General Grant, C.B., to make a circuit in the province of Oude, and threaten the rear and flanks of the insurgents on the Ganges; the Brigadier-General is to visit the places bearing the most rebellious character, particularly the residence of the Nana, at Futtehpoore Chowrassee, of Numsib Ally, at Rassoolabad and Meangunge. Brigadier-General MacGregor hoped to cross the Gogra below Tanda, on the 14th of February, with Jung Bahadoor's force, and Brigadier-General Franks will be able to concentrate his force on the same date at Singramow. Thus his Excellency will have an additional force of 12,000 men to carry on the siege. General Outram reports that he has no reason to anticipate further attacks from the insurgent troops under the Begum of Lucknow. The great commissariat dépôt is to be formed at Jellalabad, which is the right of Sir James Outram's position.

Delhi.—The necessary orders for the demolition of the fortification have been issued.

Etawah.—Mr. Hume has gained a victory over the rebels at Phoolpoore, capturing their guns and killing 125 men.

Futtehpoore.—The party of mutineers and insurgents in the district continue to increase.

Futtehghur.—2,000 men are reported to be on the Ramgunga with four guns. At Sandee there is a force of 4,000, with several guns; they hover about Meorah Ghaut, opposite Mendhee Ghaut. They are also in force at Seorajpoore. The Nana was at Nobutgunge on the 10th of February, and seized some boats. Hurdeo Bux's villages have been attacked. Appa Sahib is recruiting at Seetulgunge, and has got 300 men. A regular chain of communication is kept up by the rebels between Bareilly and Lucknow, *via* Shahjehanpoore, Sandee, and Bilgram. The Rajah of Seorajpoore, Minnepoorie Rajah, Kuttra Rajah, Mossum Ali Khan, and perhaps Bukht Khan, are at Meorah Ghaut and Bilgram, with a strong force of cavalry and infantry, and six or seven guns. Nirtul Sing commands Hushmut Ally's men, about 500, near Mendhee Ghaut; there are no guns there. The force at Nana Mhow consists of 2,000 men and twelve guns. Munsab Alli, with 1,000 men and ten guns, is at Meangunge; and at Sandee a force of 1,000 sowars, and five guns. One attack is proposed on all the ghauts at once.

Fyzabad.—Maun Sing has reached with, it is said, 12,000 men.

Hyderabad.—The Rajah of Sholapore having levied bodies of mercenaries with a view to hostilities against the British Government, the Resident has applied to the Madras Government for troops, and has also ordered the troops of Singa Soogoor and some of the Hyderabad Contingent to proceed to Sholapore. The town of Sholapore has been occupied by Colonel Malcolm; the Rajah had made his escape, but was afterwards captured.

Indore.—The Rajah of Arghar has been hanged.

Jaunpoore.—Brigadier-General Franks has united his columns near Budhapore, on the road to Sultanpoore, and has been ordered to move on the road which runs from Jaunpoore to Lucknow.

Jubbulpore.—Captain Osborne has taken all the outer defences of Bijeeragohur, and was about to attack the fort itself.

Nagpoore.—Seventeen mutineers of the Nagpoore Irregular Force were hanged on the 20th January, 1858. The execution went off quietly. Captain Shakspear has returned through the Jungham pass, through the Raepore frontier, and found the road open, and not a rebel to be seen. Baron von Mayern commenced shelling the fort of Seobuggpore on the 21st January, but was obliged to desist in consequence of some accident to his gun. He has been ordered to return to Pindun, and defend the Raepore frontier against the Mundia rebels. General Whitlock has advanced towards Jubbulpore.

Punna.—Major Ellis states that Medhaloll, Chuprassie, and Koorja Persaud, Moortear of Dalta States, went to the Nawab of Banda, and signed a paper agreeing, on the part of the State, to send troops to his assistance. The Ranees of Dalta gave the intelligence. Orders have been given for securing both the men.

Rhotas.—Lieutenant-Colonel Michel took possession of the fort on the 17th February with a part of Captain Rattray's Sikh Battalion. The mutineers and rebels retreated and dispersed.

Sasseram.—Within five hours of the Governor-General's departure from Jehannabad, on his journey by dak to Benares, on the night of the 2nd February, 1858, the village of Akbarpoore was attacked by 200 mutineers and rebels; they were, however, held in check by the zemindars, and retreated in the morning.

Saugor.—Sir H. Rose attacked the fort of Shahghur on the 26th January, 1858. The rebels had been forced to abandon the town, and are in the fort. The Shahzadah of Mundesore and other rebel chiefs, with about 4,000 people, are said to be in the fort. The fort of Ratghur was evacuated on the night of the 28th idem. Fazel Mahomed Khan was taken prisoner and hanged over the gate. Sir Hugh Rose reached Saugor on the 3rd February, 1858, without opposition, and relieved the fort and station. The rebels are at Kinakut.

Sylhet.—A party of forty or fifty mutineers have been attacked in the Kuttar jungles, and thirteen killed. Several stragglers have also been killed; in all, 137 have been accounted for. At Cachar, in Jumbulpore, the jemadar of Kalabar, a rebel chief, and several others, have given themselves up.

On the 5th of March the Governor-General of India sent to the Court of Directors of the East India Company a narrative of events in the disturbed districts, compiled from information received from the authorities in those districts.

Cawnpore.—Brigadier-General Grant arrived at Meangunge on the 23rd February, and found it a strong walled town occupied. A breach was effected in three hours, and the place was assaulted and taken. The enemy lost upwards of 400 men; our casualties only sixteen or eighteen, including two officers wounded: four guns had been captured. The Commander-in-Chief crossed the river, and reached Buntara, six miles from Alumbagh, on the 28th February.

Calpee.—The Nana's nephew, Rao Sahib, is at this place, with no considerable force.

Cuttack.—A detachment of forty men, Madras Native Infantry, and Ramghur Light Infantry Battalion, attacked some rebels in their stronghold, near Sumbulpore, and were defeated. Captain Woodbridge, commanding the detachment, and two sepoyes, were killed, and five sepoyes wounded; assistance had been sent.

Futteghur.—The Nana was reported to be still at Birra on the 20th February, and the situation of the rebels much the same across the river.

Goruckpore.—General MacGregor reports, that the fleet of boats, with Colonel Rowcroft's force, arrived on the night of the 19th February, four miles below Jung Bahadoor's position at Burraree; that Colonel Rowcroft's force was crossed over to the right bank of the River Gogra; on the morning of the 20th, another brigade and six guns crossed; and that the boats would at once be brought up to Phoolpore, when the whole force would be crossed over. Colonel Rowcroft's force, and the brigade which crossed the river on the 20th, met the enemy at Phoolpore, and totally defeated them, capturing three guns. The bridge of boats was expected to be ready on the 25th February; and the Maharajah had proposed to advance by forced marches. Jung Bahadoor's force arrived at Umberpore (fifteen miles towards Lucknow, *via* Sultanpore) on the 26th February. As it was determined to go by this route, the Naval Brigade, Yeomanry Cavalry, and the two Goorkha regiments, under Colonel Rowcroft, were left for the protection of Goruckpore, agreeably to the wishes of the Maharajah. On the 27th instant the forces arrived at Semolee. The men and cattle, especially the Bewa Brigade, were considered unfit to proceed any farther. On the 26th February the force captured a small fort after a desperate resistance; it was very strong, having a triple line of defence within a bamboo jungle; and, although defended by only thirty-four men, the Goorkhas lost seven killed and forty-three wounded. All the enemy were killed. A much larger fort was occupied on the 27th instant without opposition, and burnt; 200 men had been in it the day before.

Jounpore.—General Franks' force marched from Singramow on the 19th February, and attacked a force of 8,000 men (of whom 2,500 were sepoyes of the 20th, 28th, 48th, and 71st Regiments Native Infantry) under Bunda Hossun Chukledar, with eight guns, at Chanda, and totally defeated them, and pursued them to the village of Rampoor, three miles beyond Chanda. Later the same day he attacked and defeated a force of 10,000 men and eleven guns, under Mehundee Hussein, at Ameerpore, on their march to the support of Chanda. In these actions six guns have been captured, and 600 or 700 men killed and wounded. The casualties on our side were only two officers (one civilian), five Europeans, and four Goorkhas wounded. General Franks was at Ameerpore on the 20th; the Nizam being on his left at Warree, and both being equally anxious to get possession of the pass, jungle, and fort of Budhayan; but on the 21st General Franks out-manœuvred him, and got into the above position, which secured the advance of our troops to Sultanpore. On the 22nd General Franks halted at Budhayan, awaiting the arrival of the cavalry reinforcements, and the Nazim, by making a détour, arrived at Badshahgunge, two miles beyond Sultanpore, and took up a strong position, intimating his arrival by firing a salute. On the 23rd our force marched ten miles, turned the right of the enemy's position, and got into his rear, attacked and defeated his force of 25,000 men (of whom 5,000 were sepoyes, and 1,800 cavalry), with twenty-five guns, killed and wounded at least 1,800 men, amongst the latter Rajah Hussun Ali Khan, and captured twenty pieces of artillery—one 32-pounder, two 24-pounders, two 18-pounders, four 12-pounders, one 9-pounder, and ten smaller guns—besides all their camp,

baggage, ammunition, &c. The enemy's force was completely dispersed, and the road to Lucknow and Fyzabad was opened. Our whole loss in the three actions above mentioned amounts to only two men killed and sixteen wounded. General Franks proposed continuing his march towards Lucknow the next morning. On the 25th instant the force arrived near Moosafir Khana. Two of the enemy's sowars were killed, and important despatches from Rajahs Hussein Ali Khan and Lall Madho Sing found on them, acknowledging their inability to cope with us in the field, and recommending night attacks being made on our baggage, and inroads into the old provinces, as the only means of preventing General Franks' force from going into Lucknow. The Lahore Light Horse and Pathan Irregular Cavalry have joined General Franks.

Lucknow.—The enemy attacked Sir James Outram, at Ajumbagh, on the 25th February. Two guns were captured from them, and a large number of rebels were cut up. Our loss only two killed and six or eight wounded; amongst the latter, Colonel Berkely and Captain Moorsom, slightly. The Begum and some of her principal officers were present on elephants, but escaped.

The Commander-in-Chief arrived at Dilkosha on the 2nd instant, and took up his ground in rear of the place after a skirmish with the advance guard of the rebels, in which a gun was taken from them. They have made a very complete line of works in front of the Commander-in-Chief, and were keeping up a heavy cannonade. The siege train was to close up on the 4th; half of it arrived on the 3rd. General Franks was to close on the Commander-in-Chief on the 4th. His Excellency is in communication with him.

On the 16th March, the Governor-General of India sent to the Court of Directors of the East India Company a narrative of events in the disturbed districts, compiled from information received from the authorities in those districts.

Agra.—On the 6th March, it was reported that Walleedad Khan, with 4,000 men and three guns, intended crossing the Ganges at Kuchla, and 200 cavalry at Kudwargunge. Brigadier Showers has directed some troops from Allyghur to take up an advanced position to keep them in check.

Allahabad.—The wing of her Majesty's 13th Foot has been ordered to join Colonel Rowcroft's force across the Gogra, from Azimghur. The 4th and 6th Madras Light Cavalry arrived here on the 10th March. On the 12th March, the 80th Foot left for Futtehpoore. The 4th Madras Cavalry marched on the 15th instant to Goruckpoore, detaching fifty men under a subaltern at Azimghur on its way. The detachment of her Majesty's 37th at Ghazeepoore, with two guns, proceeds to Azimghur, and another detachment of the same regiment, now at Dinapore, is to come up to Ghazeepoore. Her Majesty's 35th has reached Dinapore.

Allyghur.—General Penny had marched from Meerut with a moveable column, and reached Allyghur on the 12th March; and discretionary powers have been sent to him to cross the Ganges in pursuit of the rebels, or under any other circumstances that may make it advisable to do so. He was expected at Khasgunge on the 15th March. Etah is now safe.

Cawnpore.—The rebels have evacuated Ghatumpore, and recrossed the Jumna. A body of rebels, considerable in number, but not known to have guns, arrived on the 4th March on the left bank of the Ganges, opposite Radhall, five miles above Sheorajpoore. They are supposed to have come from the west. On the 5th March, there was a report from Colonel Maxwell's moveable column, which states that the Chirkaree Rajah had been taken prisoner by the rebels after a hard fight; but it requires confirmation. The rebels who threatened Radhall have retired inland, and are now known to have been Nurput Singh's party. On the 2nd March, some reinforcements, called Wilaitees, had joined the rebels at Calpee. The rebel force at Ghatumpore has made no advance, and all is clear on the left bank of the Ganges. On the 6th March, the ghauts on the Ganges were still clear; but a collection of rebels, reported at Booca fort, near Madho Ghurrie, headed by rebel chiefs, Rajah of Futwa and others. Nothing new from the Jumna side. Colonel Maxwell's force is at Jubbulpore. The gathering of the rebels on the left bank of the Ganges was assuming a more serious form on the 7th March. On the Jumna side, the rebels continue to gather at Hameerpoore, and they have made preparations for its defence. The Rajah of Chirkaree is still said to be holding out. Natives report great alarms at Calpee. Colonel Maxwell's moveable column crossed into Oude on the 9th March. It is said that the rebels intend breaking up their establishments at Derapore and Russoolabad. On the 12th March, planking was in progress on the sands of the Jumna, near Humeerpoore, but the rebels have not crossed. At Calpee, all as usual. All the ghauts on the Ganges were quiet. A report was received on the 15th March, that a considerable body of rebels had crossed the Jumna, from Humeerpoore into Ghatumpore district, but without guns. All well at Cawnpore. Colonel Maxwell returned.

Futtehghur.—On 6th March, the rebels were in force at Soorajpoore, headed by leaders of importance, who threatened to cross the Ganges. The rebels from Budaon are reported to have attacked Kumpil, on the right bank of the Ganges. Some 300 sowars and some infantry have recrossed the river with considerable plunder. Information, from a reliable source, was

rought on the 11th March, that the Nana had arrived with 300 or 400 men, horse and foot, at Shahjehanpore, and was on his way to Bareilly. The enemy had recrossed the Ganges on the 4th March.

Futtehpore.—The moveable column under Lieutenant-Colonel Christie, her Majesty's 80th, on the left bank of the Jumna, attacked the rebels at Serowlee, on the opposite bank. The enemy are believed to have suffered severely; but, as there were no boats, our force could not cross the river and attack them; and Lieutenant-Colonel Christie, therefore, after having shelled the town of Serowlee, and set fire to parts of it, retired to Dhana, at 10 A.M.; our loss was one man killed, and three wounded.

Goruckpore.—Colonel Rowcroft's force was attacked by the rebels, 4,000 sepoyas, 10,000 irregulars, 300 sowars, and nine guns, at Amora, on the 5th March. The action commenced at 8.30 A.M., and closed at 12.30 P.M. The enemy were totally defeated, and pursued seven miles, losing 400 or 500 killed and wounded; eight guns and ammunition were captured—namely, one 18-pounder, one 9-pounder, two 6-pounders, and four of smaller calibre. The Yeomanry Cavalry made some telling charges, in one, killing ninety-three of the enemy. The Nazim Mahomed Hussun, Rajah Dabie Bux of Gonda, the Rajah of Churdah, and Mahundee Alli Hussain, were present, on elephants. The sepoyas were of the 1st, 10th, and 53rd, lately completed to 500 each; 2nd Oude police, 700; and some of the 5th Gwalior Contingent. On the 17th February, whilst escorting boats up the River Gogra, Captain Sotheby, R.N., with a force consisting of 130 men of the Naval Brigade, 35 Sikhs, and 60 Goorkhas, with one mountain-howitzer, attacked and captured the fort of Chundepore, on the left bank of the river, taking two guns, spare waggons, and ammunition, besides all the private property of the rebels. The fort was situated in the midst of a dense plantation of bamboo, and was garrisoned by about 300 men, not many of whom were killed, in consequence of the thick cover they fought under. Our loss was four wounded, including Captain Weston, 36th Native Infantry. The river steamer *Jumna* co-operated with the land force, and rendered efficient service. The fort and adjacent buildings were burnt.

Lucknow.—General Franks' force joined the Commander-in-Chief on the 5th March. On the left of Alumbagh, a strong brigade of cavalry has been placed, and patrols as far as the old road between Lucknow and Cawnpore. Sir J. Outram's advance across the Goomtee took place on the 6th March, and his force, after driving the enemy from it, occupied a position across the Fyzabad road, leaving the Chukkur Walla Kotee rather more than a mile in his front. Major Smith, 2nd Dragoon Guards, was killed in the skirmish. On the 7th instant, the enemy made a desultory assault on Sir James's force, but was driven off with ease. Sir H. Grant then made a wide sweeping movement with cavalry and horse artillery to the north-east, through the cantonments, and returned to camp without having been opposed. On the 9th March, Sir J. Outram attacked the enemy, and, after taking the Chukkur Walla Kotee, he pressed on, and occupied the Badshabagh, opposite the Chutter Munzil. Our loss very trifling. Sir J. Outram having on the 9th instant effectually turned and enfiladed the enemy's first great line of works, the Martinière, after it had been heavily cannonaded, was stormed by the 2nd division, under Sir E. Lugard. The action was principally an artillery one, and our loss was, consequently, trifling. The lower line of works on the canal, abutting on the Goomtee, has been seized by us. Sir J. Outram was to commence shelling the Kaiserbagh on the 10th March. The Commander-in-Chief is making gradual progress against the multiplied defences of the enemy. On the 10th March, Banks's house was occupied, and an extended position taken up in its front; and Sir J. Outram has pushed his advances on the other side of the river. The resistance was stubborn, and the rebels are in great numbers. Jung Bahadoor joined and moved into line on the 11th March. Sir J. Outram, on the 11th, pushed his advance as far as the iron bridge on the left bank of the Goomtee, and established batteries so as to enfilade some of the enemy's works, and to command the stone bridge. The Begum's house was stormed, after a heavy cannonading, on the afternoon of the same day, by the 93rd Highlanders, 4th Punjaub Infantry, and 1,000 Goorkhas. They were supported by the rest of Sir E. Lugard's division. Maharajah Jung Bahadoor was to move close to the canal the same afternoon, and to take an active part in the operations of the 12th instant. Three telegraph offices have been established, one at Alumbagh, one in the Martinière, and one in General Outram's camp. All were working well on the 12th idem. The Emambarrah and Kaiserbagh were taken on the 14th instant. On the 15th March, the enemy were streaming out of the city in vast numbers in the direction of Sundeela. Brigadier Campbell, who was on the left of the Alumbagh, started in pursuit at 2 A.M., with a very strong brigade of cavalry, and two troops of horse artillery; and Brigadier-General Grant, with 1,000 men and two troops of horse artillery, also started towards Seetapore, with the view of intercepting the fugitives who may be turned off by Brigadier Campbell's movement; and was followed on the morning of the 16th instant, by a brigade of infantry and heavy artillery. He is directed to halt at Seetapore for instructions. This is the direct road to Rohilcund.

Roorkee.—Three regiments and a half of Sikh Infantry, and one of cavalry, were ready to cross the Ganges on the 10th March.

Saugor.—Brigadier Wheler writes from camp, Banda, 1st March, that he had had an affair with a body of about 300 rebels, at a village called Jalimpore, seven miles from thence, and just across the Shahghur frontier. They were posted in the village, with a densely

wooded hill in their rear; they opened a fire with zumboorucks; but after a few rounds from our guns, they retired into the jungle. The head-quarters of the 31st Native Infantry, and 150 of the Hyderabad Contingent, drove them through the jungle, and on the hills, until they were totally dispersed, and had lost their zumboorucks, plunder, and two loads of gunpowder—our loss, nothing. Brigadier Wheler was about to make a feint on Shahghur, and await further orders from Sir H. Rose at Bamori, the fourth march from Saugor, on the Calpee road. The force under Sir H. Rose forced the pass of Mudhunpore on the 3rd March, after a short but vigorous resistance. The enemy numbered about 4,000 or 5,000 Pathans and Bundelas, and 600 or 700 sepoys of the 52nd and other regiments: they suffered severely. Major Orr was sent in pursuit, and cut up fifty or sixty of the rebels, of whom a large number were sepoys. The enemy abandoned the fort of Serai, which is the property of the Rajah of Shahghur, and scattered in every direction. A small party of our troops is to be left in it, to keep open the communication with Saugor. This success enables Sir H. Rose to communicate with his first brigade at Esaghur (or Chundeyree) up to Jhansi, with the exception of two or three forts which he can take.

On the 19th March, the Governor-General of India sent to the Court of Directors of the East India Company a narrative of events in the disturbed districts, compiled from information received from the authorities in those districts.

Cawnpore.—On the 16th March, the rebels had recrossed the Jumna to Humeerpore.

Futteghur.—On the 15th March, the Nana was still at Shahjehanpore, and the more important of the rebels were with him. The enemy had also again entered the district, attacked Kumpil, and driven off the Shanna people. General Penny was close at hand.

Lucknow.—On the 16th March, the bridges were secured, and our troops occupied the Muchee Bawn and great Imambarah. Large bodies of the enemy were seen to cross the stone bridge an hour before Sir J. Outram's attack commenced. He was ordered to press the attack; but the resistance was very slight in comparison with that of the previous days. On the night of the above date, a Goorkha division also seized the enemy's position in front of the Alumbagh. Vast numbers of men, both armed and unarmed, were evacuating the city by the outlet they possess to the northwards. On the 17th instant, our advances were being gradually pushed on all sides of the line occupied by the troops, particularly towards Gow Ghaut and Moosabagh, in which direction the enemy are retiring. The point they intend to make for is not known.

Agra.—Intelligence has been received from Agra, dated the 17th March, that the town only of Chirkaree had been plundered, and that the fort was safe. Nothing of interest had been heard from Brigadier Showers' column; but the rebels were in the ravines of the Chumbul, and some of them had been killed. The new police behaved well. The country on both sides of the Chumbul is much unsettled. At Kotah, the Rao, aided by others from Kerowlee, is fighting with the rebels, and appears to have the best of it.

Futteghur.—On the 17th March, the enemy were in great force at Bichpooria, headed by Mohsaur Alli Khan, and have completed their bridge there, and threaten to cross.

Lucknow.—On the 17th March, the Goorkha force, under Jung Bahadoor, occupied the Charbagh and Cawnpore road in the city, and were attacked by the enemy in great force in the afternoon. The enemy's flank, however, was turned by the direction of the Maharajah in person, and they were completely defeated, with the loss of ten guns and all the waggons of a light field battery; one gun was one of our own 9-pounders. On the morning of the 18th March, the Goorkha force renewed its advance on the right, and captured seven more guns, and the force holds that quarter of the city, one mile and a-half to the westward of the Cawnpore road. The Goorkhas have passed the front of Alumbagh, and taken the rebel batteries opposed to them in reverse. The advance of our troops on the right, on the 17th, was not opposed. On the 18th instant, we were in possession of the greater part of the town, and the first attempts at the restoration of authority were being made. The inhabitants had fled the city, and were in the neighbouring villages. A force had been organized to attack the Moosabagh, the last post held by the enemy, on the following morning, 19th March.

On the 20th March, the Secretary to the Government of India sent to the Secretary at the India House, the accompanying addition to the narrative of events despatched the day before to the Court of Directors:—

Agra.—News of the 15th March, from Gwalior, confirms the intelligence of the capture of the fort of Chirkaree by the rebels, under Tantia Topee, aided, it is said, by parties sent by the Nawab of Banda and Rane of Jeytpore. Up to the 19th of March, no further news had been received from Brigadier Showers' force on the Chumbul, or from Kotah.

Futteghur.—On the 18th March, the rebels crossed the Ramgunja in great force, with four guns; they retired, however, to Baugaon. Their bridge is finished across the Ramgunja. On the 19th instant, our column at Meeran-ke-Serai was called in. Authentic

information had been received that the Nana was at Allygunge. At Simirree, the rebels remain in the same force as before.

Lucknow.—The Moosabagh, the last post held by the enemy, was taken by our troops on the morning of the 19th March, and the cavalry has been sent in pursuit to the northward. Miss Jackson and Mrs. Orr have been saved. Arrangements were being made for the withdrawal of a part of our troops from the city. The Commander-in-Chief is arranging the details for the future garrison of Lucknow.

Cawnpore.—On the 20th of March, intelligence had been received from the Tehseeldar of Ghatumpore, that the party who crossed the Jumna, from Humeerpore to Burree Paul, have retreated before the column commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel Christie, 80th Foot, who is patrolling the Futtehpore district of the Grand Trunk Road.

On the 1st April, 1858, the Governor-General of India sent to the Court of Directors of the East India Company a narrative of events in the disturbed districts, compiled from information received from the authorities in those districts.

Allahabad.—On the 25th March, the railway to Futtehpore was opened by the Governor-General. On the evening of the 27th instant, the wing of her Majesty's 13th, and fifty men of the 2nd Dragoon Guards, left to reinforce the troops at Benares and Azimghur.

Allyghur.—On the 27th March, there were between 3,000 and 4,000 men, with five guns at Kuchla; and Nyaz Mahomed, with five guns and 5,000 men, at Sahaswan, said to be coming to Goomour. Raheen Ally, with a considerable force, was at Chumaree. It is reported that the Nana, with 500 men, had reached a village near Bareilly, and sent a message to Khan Mahomed Khan, asking for an asylum, which the latter granted, and offered him the command of his army, which the Nana accepted, and promised to join the force at Kuchla in a couple of days.

Azimghur.—On the 21st March, Colonel Millman's force drove a body of Koorer Sing's troops out of Atrawlia, but on his return he was attacked by large bodies of rebel "Pulwara," and forced to retire, without loss, to Azimghur. Forty-six men of the Madras Rifles had been sent from Benares. Colonel Millman's force consisted of 206 Europeans, 60 Madras Cavalry, and two guns; and a reinforcement of 150 men of her Majesty's 37th, from Ghazee-pore, was to reach Azimghur on the 25th instant, to be followed by another part of nearly the same strength. Colonel Dames had assumed command at Azimghur. The rebels took possession of the town of Azimghur, without opposition, on the 26th March, and attacked the entrenchment. They are said to be 4,000 strong (1,000 sepoy), with four guns, and 3,000 more are said to be coming up from the rear. On the 27th March a force consisting of 200 men of her Majesty's 37th, two guns, and the head-quarters of the 4th Madras Cavalry, made a sortie, and drove the enemy before them with ease in the open country, but having attacked the town, they were repulsed with the loss of Captain Bedford, her Majesty's 37th Regiment, killed, and eleven men of the same regiment killed and wounded. Colonel Dames retreated to the entrenchment covered by the guns and cavalry. Colonel Dames has been instructed to act strictly on the defensive.

Benares.—On the 27th March eighty recruits arrived at Benares, and Brigadier Gordon was organizing a field detachment, consisting of 100 men of her Majesty's 10th and 97th Regiments and 50 Madras Rifles, to be added to by as many picked men as possible from the recruits. On the 29th March supplies for fifteen days for 500 Europeans, and ammunition, were despatched to Azimghur *via* Ghazee-pore, escorted by 100 men of her Majesty's 10th and 97th Regiments and 60 Madras Rifles, and it would be joined at Ghazee-pore by at least a squadron of Madras Cavalry. The wing of the 13th, sent from Allahabad, will go to Azimghur.

Cawnpore.—On the 22nd March, Futtehpore, Chorasee, and Oosmanpore, across the Ganges, were occupied by a body of rebels. Maharajah Jung Bahadoor arrived at Cawnpore on the 27th March, with 2,500 soldiers. The rebels who crossed the Jumna below Humeerpore into the Futtehpore district, made an attack on Ghatumpore on the night of the 26th March, burnt the thannah and tehselee, and killed six of our men. They left again at day-break. Reliable information was received from Calpee on the 26th March that the Ranees of Jhansi had left her own fort, and taken refuge with Tantia Topee, in the Chirkaree territory. On the 27th March a rebel force of 200 sowars, 500 sepoy, and two guns, was at Oonah and its neighbourhood. On the 30th March, the detachment from Maxwell's column had left Ghatumpore, and rejoined the main body at Akbarpore; Lieutenant-Colonel Christie's force had also moved off from Jehanabad; and, consequently, the tehselee and thannah establishments have been withdrawn from the Ghatumpore district. No news from Calpee. Affairs at Ooryah Deokullee, in the direction of Sherghur Ghaut, remain unsatisfactory.

Calcutta.—A detachment of artillery, with two guns, left for Sasseram on the 30th March; and on the 31st instant a detachment of 100 seamen left for the same place.

Etawah.—Intelligence dated the 22nd March, states that the Thana and Thessildaree of Phuphoond were plundered a few days previously.

Futtehpore.—Intelligence has been received, dated 24th March, that the rebels had crossed the Jumna below Humeerpore, and entered Pursenda, with guns. It is also said, that it appears certain that the Rajah of Chirkaree has capitulated, as two lakhs of rupees and fourteen guns have reached Calpee with the return force, a portion of which had again left to meet our force at Jhansi. The 52nd Native Infantry had arrived at Ata, near Calpee, many of them wounded, after fighting General Rose's force.

Futtehghur.—Intelligence from Shumshabad, dated 23rd March, states that Kumpil has been again attacked by the enemy; that they are in strength at Kuckla Ghaut, Soorujpore Ghaut, Bhurtpore Ghaut, and Bichpoooria Ghaut; that they are also in great strength at Baugaon, from whence firing was heard. On the 22nd March, Mr. J. Power, the magistrate of Futtehghur, sank five boats near Soorujpore. On the 25th instant, Mr. Power reconnoitred at Soorujpore, and observed the enemy to be in great force on the opposite side of the river, amounting to some thousands, with a great many well-mounted cavalry amongst them. They are in greater force at Baugaon. On the 27th March, the enemy had increased in strength opposite Soorujpore, and brought down more guns. On the 30th March, 800 of the enemy's cavalry, in excellent order, crossed the Ganges near Kumpil, but retired again on the appearance of our force. A strong body of them went off to the left. The rebels who were at Kusnora had dispersed. They are still in force at Baugaon and Allygunge.

Jaunpore.—All was quiet on the 28th March, and the fort in readiness to resist any attack that might be made on it.

Jhansi.—On the 22nd March, Sir H. Rose's force arrived at Jhansi, and the reconnoitring party were fired at from the fort and town. The Ranees is residing in the fort. The garrison is said to consist of about 300 or 400 mutineers, 100 or 150 cavalry, 400 Willaitees, and 5,000 or 6,000 Bundelas, &c.; but these numbers are not to be depended on. Twenty or thirty guns have been mounted on the works, and most of the city gates have been bricked up. Rajah of Banpore is supposed to be in the neighbourhood, with a strong party, with the intention of annoying the investing force. The Duttiah State has sent 2,000 or 3,000 men to take post on the borders between that State and Jhansi, and to assist the British. The inhabitants of the country hold aloof from us as yet. Intelligence of 28th March has been received that our cannonade from the evening of the 27th instant had been very severe, and that only one gun in the fort, and two guns on the city walls, remained unsilenced.

Kotah.—Intelligence of the 18th March reports that the Kurrowlie troops, who were assisting the Maha Rao, had taken six guns from the rebels. A letter from Boondee, dated 20th instant, states that the rebels had made an inroad into Boondee and destroyed some supplies collected there. On the 22nd March, the British force arrived opposite Kotah, and encamped one mile and three-quarters from the enemy, who is in position on the opposite side of the Chumbul; they have 100 guns, of which fifty are heavy ones, and they fire at great elevation towards our camp and the palace and fort, which are held by Maha Rao's force; his Kurrowlie allies hold half the city, their inner flank being a wall which surrounds the city. The Maha Rao went out to the British camp on its arrival. The enemy's fire on the fort and part of the city protected by it, had slackened on the 23rd instant.

Lucknow.—On the 23rd March, Sir J. H. Grant was sent to Koorsee to disperse a body of insurgents under Jai Lall Sing. The operation was perfectly successful, and twelve guns were captured. General Grant was to return on the 24th instant to his old quarters in cantonments. The military train, her Majesty's 10th regiment, and a field battery, left Lucknow on the 28th March for Allahabad. And on the 29th instant, Sir E. Lugard marched with a brigade of infantry, 700 sabres, and eighteen pieces of artillery, including heavy guns and mortars, towards Azimghur. He is to go *via* Atrawlia, and take the rebels at Azimghur in rear. General Grant is commanding in the city of Lucknow, and the army has been broken up; but there remains a strong moveable division, composed of four regiments of cavalry and eight of infantry, with artillery in proportion, under Brigadier-General Walpole. The troops remaining at Lucknow are to be formed into a field force, under a divisional commander, with brigadiers for each arm (two for the infantry).

Punnah.—General Whitlock's force was encamped on the right bank of the Bunas River on the 24th March, and was expected at Punnah on the 29th instant, when he would move against the rebels who left Chirkarees upon the 19th idem, and have collected in force near Nowgong.

Patna.—Intelligence from Patna, received *via* Calcutta, dated 30th March, states that the rebels had collected ninety boats on the Gogra, and threatened to visit Hutra and Chupra.

Sasseram.—The two companies of her Majesty's 54th regiment and two guns have left for Benares, to be replaced from Calcutta.

Saugor.—The fort of Chandaree was stormed and captured on the 17th March, by the 1st brigade Central India Field Force; our loss was not great.

Agra.—Intelligence of the 6th April has been received, mentioning that the loss of the enemy at the taking of Kotah was trifling, as they had prepared for flight, and that they had escaped in the direction of Gwalior. The leaders have escaped. Spies sent from Agra report the arrival of a rebel force with twelve guns at Sheopore, on the border between Gwalior and Kotah. Hera Sing has command, and gives out his intention of going to Jhansi.

Azimghur.—The detachment of her Majesty's 13th and Madras Rifles reached Azimghur

on the 6th April. The rebels had partly broken the bridge, and met the detachment in force. The fire was very severe, but the 13th and Madras Rifles, the whole under Lord Mark Kerr, behaved admirably.

Cawnpore.—On the 7th April, Maxwell's force had moved to Guincue. The rebels at Hurra have been dispersed.

Calpee.—On the 6th April, Calpee was being filled with the wounded and defeated rebels from Jhansi.

Futteghur.—On the 6th April, the rebels had gone back from Kumpil across the river, but remain in the same place on the opposite side. The force at Baugaon had been increased by two regiments. The more important rebels are all at Bareilly, and a proclamation by Ferozshah, son of the King of Delhi, has attracted much attention.

Kotah.—Intelligence received from Baroda of the 5th April, states that both the fort and town of Kotah are completely in our possession, and that above fifty guns had been captured. Our loss estimated to be only twenty-five killed and wounded. This success was gained by a flank movement which turned the enemy's position, and rendered his defences utterly useless. The native troops were behaving right well.

On the 6th April, 1858, the Governor-General of India sent to the Court of Directors of the East India Company a further narrative of events in the disturbed districts, compiled from the information received from the authorities in those districts.

Banda.—It is stated that the mutinous sepoys are leaving the Nawab's service, in consequence of his having refused to grant them increased rates of pay.

Bareilly.—On the 24th March, Khan Bahadoor Khan's powder magazine is reported to have exploded, destroying adjacent houses and 63 lives. The Nana reached Bareilly the same day, with his family, and 500 horse and foot. Pilleebheet has been evacuated by the rebels.

Calcutta.—A further detachment of the Indian Navy, with two guns, had been ordered up to Sasseram on the 5th April.

Cawnpore.—On the 3rd April, news of the death of Tantia Topes was again received from Calpee. A detachment of Colonel Maxwell's column had gone to help Mr. Hume at Ooryah. The 5th Fusiliers and 78th had arrived at Cawnpore from Lucknow. On the 4th April, a party from Colonel Maxwell's column made a demonstration at Humeerpore Ghaut, in order to draw out the enemy's strength. The force appears to have been greatly exaggerated; only three guns were observed, and two of these were native ones, of small calibre. The village of Rampore, the inhabitants of which have always harboured rebels, was burnt by our force. Colonel Maxwell's force was to march to Ackbarpore on the 5th April. On the 4th April, a strong column, under General Inglis, left Cawnpore, and had gone across the Ganges to attack Harra, a village in Oude, where the rebels have been collecting revenue.

Calpee.—In consequence of a misunderstanding between the Gwalior Contingent mutineers and Mahrattas, Mahomed Ishur, an adherent of the Nana, is stated to have fled, on the 5th April, from Uroha to Narain Rao for refuge. It is said that a strong party, with guns, intend to cross at Sherghur and make for Bareilly. Panic prevails amongst the rebels at Calpee, on account of Sir Hugh Rose's advance.

Futteghur.—On the 1st April, the enemy were crossing at Bichpooria, but were not thought likely to remain across. Walleedad Khan is said to have joined the rebels at Mhow, opposite Bichpooria. There is also a report that the rebels intend making a rush through the Futteghur district to the southward. Some cavalry have joined them at Allygunge, and are said to have come from Shahjehanpore. It is rumoured that the Nana is coming that way. On the 2nd April it was said the enemy intended to cross at Soorjupore. The magistrate had seized seven boats.

Jhansi.—On the night of the 31st March, the rebel force crossed the Betwa from Burwa, Saugor. The British force moved out at daylight on the 1st April to meet them; and before 8 A.M. the enemy was routed and pursued by the cavalry towards Burraghutta and Oorcha. Eleven guns were captured from the enemy, many of whom were killed; amongst them several sepoys of the Gwalior Contingent. No attempt was made to escape from the fort or town, which were surrounded by our troops. On the 3rd of April the town was gallantly taken, after a determined resistance. The fort had almost ceased firing.

Kotah.—Two hundred men of her Majesty's 83rd, and 100 of the 13th Bombay Native Infantry, have been placed in the quarters held by the Kurrowlee troops against the enemy; guns were to follow. The rebel force is said to be 5,000 men. On the 30th March, Kotah was taken by the British force, with slight resistance. Battery after battery and bastion after bastion were carried with a rush, her Majesty's 72nd and 95th leading; our losses are small. The rebels are outside in the cantonments, and a force of artillery and cavalry, including the 8th Hussars, had been sent out against them. The brother of the leader of the rebels, Jeydial, is amongst the slain. On the 31st March 500 rebel sowars, with two guns, had left Kotah in the direction of the north-east.

Punna.—General Whitlock's force arrived on the 21st March, and the Rajah went out to meet it. On the 26th instant, Narain Rao had attacked and burnt down Thora, and other villages belonging to the widow of Rughoroa Sing, in consequence of which the Rajah had increased the force to 1,000 men. The mooktiar of the Ranee was killed; and there is a report that the rebel Faizandeh Mooktiar, who had proclaimed Soosal Sing Rajah of Aojghur, has also been killed, but this requires confirmation.

Saugor.—Intelligence, dated 2nd April, has been received from Saugor that Talgurb and Baraita had been occupied by the head-quarters of the 31st Native Infantry and 3rd Irregular Cavalry with hardly any opposition.

On the 16th April, 1858, the Governor-General of India sent to the Court of Directors of the East India Company a further narrative of events in the disturbed districts, compiled from the information received from the authorities in those districts.

Allahabad.—Maharajah Jung Bahadoor left on the 8th April.

Azinghur.—On the 14th April, a large body of the rebels, with two guns, had marched away and halted at Jugutpore, near Sugree, on the road to Goruckpore. The wing of the 13th Light Infantry, with Walsh's guns and cavalry, were about to start for Mhow (between Azimghur and Ghazeepore), and were to be joined by Major Carr's detachment from Birnoa, on the road from Ghazeepore to Goruckpore. General Lugard was seven miles from Azimghur. A despatch, dated 14th April, from Sir E. Lugard, mentions his arrival at Ranee-ke-serai. Koer Sing and his party were still in the city (Azimghur), and that he proposed seizing the bridge in the evening. Some of the rebels had gone to the south-east, but measures had been taken to intercept them.

Benares.—On the 14th April, in consequence of the movement of the Azimghur rebels towards Ghazeepore, two companies of the 54th were sent off on elephants and "ekahs," so as to reach the latter place in two days. The force there will then consist of 300 infantry, 50 dragoons, 100 Madras Cavalry, and two six-pounder guns.

Bundelcund.—General Whitlock's force arrived at Mandala on the 2nd April. Sir H. Rose had ordered the force on to Jhansi direct with all expedition; but a great deal of the baggage not having come up, in consequence of the difficulty in getting over the ghaut, and the guns and other wheeled carriage having sustained much injury, it would not be able to march before the 7th instant. General Whitlock's force of cavalry and horse artillery arrived at Logassai on the morning of the 10th of April, and was pushed on to Jheehan to attack a party of 400 rebels under Disput Bundala. The rebels had taken up a position on a hill, but were speedily dislodged and pursued by the cavalry. Forty rebels were killed, and fifteen made prisoners; among them two of note—Rajah Hunjee, cousin, and Tet Sing, nephew of Disput.

Etah.—Rajah Tej Sing, of Mynpoorie, crossed the Kalla Nuddee on the 9th of April with 100 men. Their baggage was cut off by the thannahs of Allygunge, who pursued them. They had no guns. Some sowars and their horses are said to have been drowned in crossing the Nuddee.

Futteghur.—On the night of the 6th of April, a force under Brigadier Seaton, consisting of 1,000 infantry, 300 cavalry, and five guns, crossed the Ganges; and, on the morning of the 7th instant, attacked the rebel force under Ishmail Khan and Mohsim Ally Khan at Kunker, near Baugaon. The enemy was taken completely by surprise, and defeated. They consisted of 800 cavalry, 1,800 infantry, including some sepoy of 41st and 10th Native Infantry, and Gwalior Contingent, with guns. Three of the latter (one 10-pounder and two small guns) were taken by us, and a large quantity of ammunition. 250 of the rebels were killed: our loss, five killed and seventeen wounded. The enemy had broken up the bridge over the Ramgunga at Allygunge, but began rebuilding it when our force returned. The zemindars, across the Ganges, had arranged for the payment of their revenues. On the 11th instant, a Brahmin in the service of the Nana had joined the force opposite Jaitpore Ferry with four regiments and four guns: the enemy there is strong. Hurdeo Bukah had taken Sandhee, and captured two guns from the rebels and their camp. On the 13th April, it was reported that the rebel army intend to cross at the ford of Kenium, near Bhutta. They had increased largely at Allygunge. Watson's column was under orders to march in that direction. On the 15th April, the enemy's cavalry were burning villages on the other side of the Ganges, near Futteghur, and it was supposed their rear had been disquieted by the advance of our troops.

Jaunpore.—On April 10th, the rebel Golaum Hussein, with 3,000 men (1,000 of them sepoy) and two guns, was within four miles of Tigra, to the north-west of Jaunpore. Sir E. Lugard's force was expected at Jaunpore on the following day. Sir E. Lugard, with his force, arrived at Tigra on the 11th April, and heard that the rebels under Golaum Hussein were six miles distant. Our force was too much exhausted, from the excessive heat and a long march, to proceed; but, in the evening, Sir E. Lugard, hearing that there was a movement amongst the enemy, pursued with three horse-artillery guns and cavalry, came up with them, killed about eighty men, captured their two guns, and dispersed their force. On our side, Lieutenant C. Havelock was killed and six sowars wounded. Sir E. Lugard was to march to Deedargunge

on the following day. On the 14th April it was reported that Golaum Hussein was again collecting his followers, but it was not supposed that they would venture near the station. Sir E. Lugard has relieved the Goorkhas at Jaunpore by three companies of her Majesty's 34th Regiment.

Kotah.—On the 1st April, a magazine exploded and killed two officers—Captain Bainbrige, brigade major, and Captain Bazalgette, her Majesty's 95th Regiment. On the 2nd instant, the 1st Brigade was on the Kotah side of the Chumbul, and the head-quarters and Brigadier Lawrence expected to cross the next day. 286 prisoners had been taken, and were undergoing trial. The rebels from this place, from 3,000 to 5,000, with six guns, joined the Rajah of Nerwul, six miles from Kolarus, on the 11th April. Scindia's force at Seepree were at once placed by the Maharajah under the orders of Captain Mayne.

Lucknow.—General Walpole left *en route* to Rohilcund on the 9th April. He is to be joined at Allypunge on the Ramgunga by a brigade from Futtehghur, and a siege train has been ordered up from Cawnpore.

Mynpoorie.—Rajah Tej Sing, who crossed the Kalla Nuddee, in the Etah district, on the 9th April, had made his escape through the Mynpoorie district, and was on his way to cross the Jumna.

On the 1st May, 1858, the Governor-General of India sent to the Court of Directors of the East India Company a further narrative of events in the disturbed districts, compiled from the information received from the authorities in those districts.

Azimghur.—Brigadier Douglas came upon the rebels on the 17th April at Neegha. They are said to have suffered much from our fire, but got away with their elephants, baggage, and two guns. They were retiring towards Nugra and Bulleah on the Ganges.

Behar.—A detachment of the Naval Brigade is to proceed from the Grand Trunk Road to Gyah, and relieve the detachment Naval Brigade there, which is to proceed to reinforce Patna.

Bundelcund.—General Whitlock's force defeated the rebels after a severe engagement at Bhowraghur on the 19th April, capturing four guns and three elephants. Banda had been evacuated, and the Nawab was reported to have gone to Tirohan. On the 28th April, Tantia Topce and the Ranees of Jhansi, with 4,000 men and five guns, and the Rajahs of Shahghur and Rampore, with 3,000 men, were at Koonah to oppose Sir H. Rose's advance; and the Rao Sahib, with 1,000 men and the relics of the Banda Nawab's force, with three guns, were at Jullalpore to oppose General Whitlock. Only 2,000 men and three guns are reported to be at Calpee.

Calcutta.—Her Majesty's 73rd Regiment, from the Cape, arrived on the 23rd April. In consequence of the intelligence received from Shahabad, her Majesty's 6th Regiment had been ordered up by bullock train to Sasseram, and the first detachment left by bullock train on the 24th April. Twenty artillerymen, with an officer, have also been ordered up. The last party of her Majesty's 6th Regiment left Raneegunge by bullock train on the 29th April.

Cawnpore.—The party of rebels who had crossed over to Ameerapore, had again fallen back on the 22nd April.

Futtehghur.—Intelligence was received, dated the 20th April, that the rebels were concentrating on Jellalabad. They were raising earthen fortifications, and intended awaiting an attack there. Their force is about 10,000 men, divided into separate columns of 2,000, stretching from the Ganges to Jellalabad.

Ghazeepore.—On the 20th April, the rebels from Azimghur were attacked near Bunsdeah, in this district, by Brigadier Douglas. Many of them were killed, and we captured one 9-pounder gun complete with horses, one limber, two ammunition waggons, twenty horses, fifteen bullocks, five elephants, and twenty baggage carts. Nineteen more elephants were taken by their mahouts into Ghazeepore, and delivered over to the magistrate. Brigadier Douglas continued the pursuit towards Beyreah, where Kooer Sing is reported to have gone. At Bulleah, a body of the rebels had crossed his line of march at Chit Burrageon. The steamer *Agra*, with two companies of the 54th, had likewise been sent down the Ganges to intercept the rebels, and the steamer *Jumna* was moving down the Gogra for a like purpose. On the 21st April, Kooer Sing crossed the Ganges at Sheopore Ghaut with a large party of sepoys. The villagers on the right bank assisted him by raising several boats which had been sunk. Sir E. Lugard has been ordered to press the rebels. The 37th Regiment have been ordered to concentrate at Ghazeepore. Sir E. Lugard arrived at Ghazeepore on the 27th April with two 8-inch howitzers, two 5½-inch mortars, and two 9-pounders, with ammunition and provisions for Brigadier Douglas's force, escorted by her Majesty's 10th Foot and some of the military train. He marched again the same evening, and intends crossing into Shahabad at Sheopore Ghaut. Brigadier Douglas had despatched her Majesty's 84th Regiment, a wing of her Majesty's 13th Regiment, four guns, and 100 Madras Artillery, to Arrah.

Goruckpore.—Report received, dated 17th April, that 1,500 sepoys at Bubnee had quarrelled with Mahomed Hussein about their pay, and the possession of a wealthy prisoner, Rajah Kishen Dutt, and had left Mahomed Hussein—one-half going to Bhitowlee to join the

Begum, and the remainder, with four guns, had returned to Belwah to the Rajah of Gonda. Our force was engaged with the rebels on the above date near Bilwa, whom they defeated, capturing one gun. On the 26th April, Colonel Rowcroft reported a large assemblage of rebels from Oude, as well as those in the district under Mahomed Hussein and the Rajah of Gonda. Mehendee Hussein, who was at Tanda with 2,000 men, and a body of rebels, are at Chandapore, on the right bank of the Gogra. Colonel Rowcroft had determined to retire on Bustee on the 26th.

Oude.—On the 15th April, Brigadier-General Walpole's force attacked Nurput Sing in the fort of Rooya, and suffered considerable loss. Amongst the officers killed was Brigadier the Honourable A. Hope. The enemy evacuated the fort during the night, and it was destroyed the following morning. On the 25th April, Nurput Sing had returned to Rooya, and was committing excesses in the neighbourhood. Benez Mathub, with a considerable force, was threatening Oonao and the Cawnpore and Lucknow road.

Rohilkund.—Brigadier-General Walpole, continuing his progress, attacked a large body of rebels on the 22nd April at Sirsee, near Allygunge, killed five or six hundred of them, captured four guns, and all their camp, &c. The ghauts on the Ganges have thus been cleared by General Walpole, the Ramgunga turned, and the bridge over it at Allygunge secured for the passage of the siege-train, which crossed the Ganges at Futtehghur on the 23rd instant. The Rookie field force, under Brigadier-General Jones, met the Bijnore rebels on the 21st April at Nugeenah, utterly routed them, and captured all their guns (twelve). A great many of the enemy were slain, and on our side, the casualties were one officer, Lieutenant Gostling, killed, and eight or ten men killed and wounded. This force had taken altogether twenty-three guns since it had crossed into Rohilkund. It was at Moorsadabad on the 26th April. Guards had been placed at every entrance of the city to prevent plunder, and rebels escaping. The city was quite quiet. The rebel, Nazim Khan, had been taken alive by Lieutenant Angelo, of 1st Punjab Infantry, and twenty-two inferior rebels had also been seized.

Shahabad.—On the 23rd April, a force consisting of 200 Europeans, of whom about fifty were sailors, the rest belonging to the 35th Foot, and 100 Sikhs of the Bengal Police Corps, with two guns, was sent from Arrah to attack Koer Sing's force at Jugdespore. Our troops were overpowered, and repulsed with the loss of both the guns, and a great many men. Koer Sing was entrenching himself at Jugdespore. The rebels had not advanced on Arrah up to the 29th April. The death of Koer Sing is rumoured, but the report requires confirmation.

Sasseram.—The detachments of the Naval Brigade have been stopped at Sasseram. The two first detachments of the Naval Brigade have also been halted on the Grand Trunk Road.

On the 26th May, the Governor-General of India sent to the Court of Directors of the East India Company a further narrative of events in the disturbed districts, compiled from the information received from the authorities in those districts.

Allyghur.—Raheem Ally crossed the Ganges, with, it is said, 1,000 men and three guns, on the 12th May. Intelligence has been received from Etah, dated the 21st May, and says that 1,000 rebels are trying to cross the Ganges at Sewrajpore Ghaut.

Bundelcund.—The rebels were attacked and driven out of their entrenchments, and the town of Koonch occupied by Sir H. Rose's force on the 8th May. The enemy suffered very severely, losing four guns, our force having taken altogether eight guns. On the 22nd May, our batteries on the left bank of the Jumna opened fire on the fort at Calpee; the practice was excellent. The enemy's fire was slack. On the same day the enemy attacked Sir H. Rose's force in great numbers, and with great determination, at Golowlie. The right flank of our force was hard pressed, but the camel corps was brought up, charged the rebels with the bayonet, and the rout soon became general. On the 23rd instant, Sir H. Rose moved forward, and took possession of the town and fort of Calpee. The rebels were panic struck, and fled with precipitation towards Julaon, followed by cavalry, horse artillery, and camel corps, which soon overtook them, killed a great many, and captured all their guns and ammunition. Colonel Maxwell had shelled the fort and town from the opposite side of the river with great effect. On the 21st May, the roads between Banda and Calpee were still closed, and a party of rebels were still at Mowdha. About 150 mutineers and thirty sowars had collected at Juspooora, and were inviting the attendance of the mutineers at Serolee Ghant, with the intention of attacking the thannah at Chilla Tarra Ghaut, and then to cross the Doab into Oude. Some troops of the Rajah of Chutterpore, with two guns, had been sent to Chilla Tarra.

Futtehghur.—The Commander-in-Chief arrived here on the 25th instant.

Gwalior.—The communication on the 22nd May had been stopped by rebels for some days between Gwalior and Sir H. Rose's force. The Jhansi district is reported to be in a disturbed state. Raheem Alli, who crossed the Ganges on 12th May, reached Indoorkee on the 18th instant, and was well received by the rebel Koer Dowlut Sing.

Hyderabad (Deccan).—The Resident reports the district of Aurungabad in a very disturbed state. Arabs and Rohillas had plundered the towns of Dullnee Chuckeel and Nundwa. Scindia's district of Nagpore is likewise reported to be in a disturbed state.

Oude.—Intelligence has been received, dated the 25th May, that the Moulvie, with 500 sowars, some infantry, and three small guns, had reached Sandee, and taken possession of that place on the 24th instant.

Rohilcund.—Bareilly was finally occupied by the Commander-in-Chief on the 7th May. The enemy opposed our force with much spirit for some hours the previous day, but was at last driven, from his position outside, back into the town, with the loss of several guns. Brigadier-General Jones, with a strong column, left Bareilly on the 8th May, to relieve the garrison at Shahjehanpore, where the right wing of her Majesty's 82nd Regiment had been besieged since the Commander-in-Chief's advance on Bareilly. On the 11th May, Brigadier-General Jones's column relieved the garrison of Shahjehanpore, and took one gun. The enemy's force was principally cavalry well mounted, and no opportunity offered of cutting them up in any great number. Our casualties were small. On the 18th May, it is reported that our forces under the Commander-in-Chief attacked the rebels at Hatara and Bunnee, near Shahjehanpore; fighting lasted till night, and we had possession of their entrenchments. On the 22nd May, 900 rebels with three guns, under Abudoola Khan, Akbur Khan, and Baboo Ramnarain, Vakeel of Choundoussa, were at Ialsain Nuggur, threatening Choundoussa and Merowlee. On the Commander-in-Chief proceeding to Futtehgur, Brigadier-General Jones was charged with the operation of driving the enemy out and destroying Mohundee. He had pursued them nine or ten miles.

Shahabad.—General Lugard's force attacked (the late) Koer Sing's force, at Dilowa, on the 9th May, and took Jugdespore on the 10th instant. Umur Sing (Koer Sing's brother) was reported to be dying. On the 11th May, Colonel Carfield's force attacked the rebels under Umur Sing, on the skirts of the Jugdespore jungle, near Peroo, defeated them with loss, and burnt several villages. The enemy retired into the jungle.

Saugor.—The rebel Rajahs of Shahghur and Banpore are reported to be close to Shahghur; the former, it is said, has petitioned for life and subsistence, or otherwise he says he must plunder until he meets death; he promises to do nothing until he gets a reply. The political agent has got guns and troops from the Bizaur Rajah to aid him; this must have been about the 12th or 13th May. On the 14th May, all was still right, and 150 Native Infantry, with supplies, was about to be sent into the fort of Shahghur. Lullutpore was said to be in the hands of the rebels, and the Jhansi dāk had been cut off. The Rajah of Banpore was still sixteen miles from Shahghur. On the 17th May, it was reported that Chunda, Lullutpore, and Tal Behut were in the hands of the rebels; the dāks had been cut off. The Shahghur Rajah was still quiet.

On the 10th June, 1858, the Governor-General of India sent to the Court of Directors of the East India Company a further narrative of events in the disturbed districts, compiled from the information received from the authorities in those districts.

Bundelcund.—A flying column from Sir H. Rose's force was sent on the 24th May in further pursuit of the Calpee rebels. On the 26th instant Sir H. Rose reports that large quantities of powder and ordnance have been discovered in a subterraneous magazine in the fort of Calpee. Four foundries for making cannon were also discovered in the town. Colonel Robertson, with a flying column, is following up the rebels to Shurghur. Colonel Smith, commanding a brigade of the Rajpootana field force, and who was sent to protect Jhansi, marched on the 21st May against Chunderee, which was evacuated by the rebels on the 27th. On the 25th May, Major Middleton's force crossed the Jumna, and took possession of Humeerpore without resistance. In a report dated 31st May, Sir H. Rose reports, that the troops sent in pursuit of the Calpee rebels have taken eight guns, and killed about 500 or 600 men. The pursuit was checked in consequence of the very great heat. Sir H. Rose likewise mentions that fifteen guns were taken in the fort, and several standards belonging to the Gwalior regiments and Kotah contingents. Also that a box had been found, containing important correspondence of the Ranees of Jhansi, and which throws great light on the principal authors of the revolt. The rebels are said to be quite disheartened and disorganized.

Cawnpore.—Intelligence has been received, dated the 28th, that some rebels who entered the district were unable to cross the Ganges between Bithoor and Bilhour, and have gone back towards the Jumna. The Rajah of Kupoorthala was at Urwul on the 28th instant, with 5,000 men, 1,200 of whom are cavalry. On the 29th May, the rebels were reported to be some thousands strong, with eight guns, at Sheorajpore Ghant, on the Ganges, and had crossed and were crossing into Oude. Major Middleton's column was at Mohor, on the Grand Trunk Road, on the 30th instant; and Brigadier Carthew had marched for the same place, from Futtehpore, with a force of Sikhs and Madras sepoy, with two guns; and eighty Europeans on camels, some cavalry, and two horse-artillery guns, had been sent from Cawnpore to join him. The Rajah of Kupoorthala, with his force, arrived at Cawnpore on the 30th May, and was to leave for Oonao, in Oude, on the following morning.

Futtehghar.—On the 28th May, 5,000 rebels crossed the Kalla Nuddee, and attacked Kaimunge on the 29th instant, but were beaten off. They were crossing the Ganges during the night. A force of cavalry had been sent after them.

Goruckpore.—About the 26th May, a force of mutinous sepoys, with a horse battery, crossed the Gogra at Betwa, and were joined by Mahomed Hussain, and 1,500 men from Tanda. The united force was going to attack Maun Sing, who has asked for aid. The Begum has also sent six regiments to attack him from the west, and they have crossed the river twenty miles above Fyzabad. The town and tehsiles of Banda were plundered on the same day. Some mutineers, and four guns, are at Amorah.

Gwalior.—The rebels under Tantia Topee, numbering 5,000 or 6,000 men, with nine guns, have crossed the river Scinde, near Indoorkee, and threaten an attack on Gwalior. Scindia's small force had fallen back from the borders, and a speedy advance of our troops on Gwalior is urged, and will take place. On the 29th May, the above rebels were within twelve coss of Gwalior. Scindia had sent out two regiments of infantry, 1,000 horse, and eighteen guns to the Morar cantonments, to oppose them, and intended commanding the force himself.

Hyderabad.—Beston's Horse march for Jaulna on the 20th May. One squadron of European cavalry, two companies of European infantry, and half a battery of European artillery, have likewise been ordered there from the Bombay Presidency.

Rohilcund.—The rebels were attacked and defeated near Shahjehanpore on the 24th May; they retired on Mohundee, in Oude, which place has been taken by our troops. The Moulvie, Seekut Alli, is reported to have attacked and plundered Bilgram. Dara Shikoh, and Haje Shikoh, two princes of the Delhi family, were captured on the 28th May, in the Moradabad district.

Shahabad.—Sir E. Lugard attacked the rebels at Dulipore on the 27th May, and recaptured the two guns which had been taken from the Arrah detachment. No loss on our side.

On the 14th June, 1858, the Secretary to the Government of India sent to the Secretary at the India House a narrative of events in the disturbed districts, compiled from the information received from the authorities in those districts.

Agra.—On the 3rd June, the 3rd European Regiment, a light field battery, Mead's Horse, and some heavy guns, left Agra for Dholepore, to co-operate with Sir Hugh Rose's force against Gwalior. The Maharajah of Gwalior intends to join Sir H. Rose's force.

Ghazeepore.—Intelligence, dated 11th June, reports that 300 or 400 of Ummer Sing's rebels had crossed the Ganges and gone towards Russarah; and that two guns had been dug up at Ghamur. Brigadier Douglas' force arrived at Ghamur (fourteen miles west of Buxar) on the 11th June, and burnt it, the villagers having openly sided with the rebels. Some of the enemy were killed and others pursued to Sherepore Ghaut, but Ummer Sing, with the principal part of his force, had left Ghamur previously. Brigadier Douglas' force returned to Buxar on the 12th instant. On the 13th June, the district of Ghazeepore was reported to be entirely disorganized; almost every thana and tehsildaree burnt. Bulliah was about to be attacked, the Kurruntsadhee stud depôt was threatened, and all the Government mares and stallions had been seized by the rebels. Ummer Sing's force is said to have recrossed the Kurrunnassa into Shahabad.

Gwalior.—On the 7th June, a report had reached the rebels of the advance of the Seepree Brigade, and, on the 8th instant, of the arrival of the greater portion of the Calpee Column at Indoorkee. No supplies, up to the above date, had been put into the fort. On the same date, the rebel troops at Gwalior had been paid three months' pay, and received two months' pay as a reward. A regiment of infantry, 600 horse, and 19 guns, were also sent to watch the British force at Indoorkee. On the 11th instant, it was reported that Rao Ramkiahur, the deposed minister of Dholepore, had joined the rebels, and it is also stated that the Seepree Brigade had reached Mahona Burragaon, but this requires confirmation. Intelligence from Agra, dated 13th June, mentions that desertions have been frequent from the rebel troops since they received their pay; that Tantia Topee is with a force at Seegowlie, about six coss from Gwalior, watching the advance of our force. A regiment and four guns had been posted at Jeengunge, and pickets of horse along the Agra road. The principal resistance, it is supposed, will be at the Lushkur. Sir H. Rose reports, from the banks of the Phooj, dated 13th June, that ill-will is said to have arisen between the Banda, Calpee, and Bareilly troops, and those of Scindia, caused by the former having taken their guns from the latter. The rebels have not left Gwalior to oppose the passage of the Scinde River by Colonel Robertson and Brigadier Stuart. 14th. Information just received that the detachment, with guns posted at Jeengunge (above mentioned), are a portion of Scindia's body-guard, which escaped from the fight of the 1st instant, and have remained faithful. The latest from Gwalior confirms the report of dissension between Scindia's troops and the rebels, the latter having, in consequence, moved out of the Lushkur and encamped under the neighbouring hills.

Mynpoorie.—On the 11th June, Tej Sing, the Rajah of Mynpoorie, surrendered himself.

On the 22nd June, the Governor-General of India sent to the Secretary at the India House a further narrative of events in the disturbed districts, compiled from the information received from the authorities in those districts.

Azimgur.—On the 17th June it was reported that the district was quite disorganized by small bands of sepoys and rebels traversing it.

Behar.—On the 15th June, the thannah of Bickram, sixteen miles from Patna, was burnt by the rebels. They are reported to be spreading over the eastern part of Behar, but had not reached Tikaree, or Gya. Four companies of the Madras Rifles are expected at Gya, from Hazareebaugh.

Futteghur.—Report received dated 16th June, that the Moulvie of Fyzabad had been killed at Purwain by the followers of the Rajah of that place.

Gwalior.—Scindia's troops are said to be deserting in great numbers to rejoin the Maharajah, and had been ordered to assemble at Gowra, on the old Bombay road, to intercept fugitives. The Seepree force is reported to have been at Punnar on the 14th June, and the Bazeo Baie with it. A report dated 18th June, from Agra, mentions that Scindia's father's treasurer had joined in the plunder of the Rajah's treasure, and had sent fifteen camel-loads into the Bhekaneer States. Brigadier Smith's force had had a fight with the rebels on the 17th June, and captured four guns. On the 18th instant Sir R. Hamilton reported that the Ranees of Jhansi had been killed. On the 19th instant Sir H. Rose took Gwalior by assault, after a general action of five and a half hours. The enemy evacuated the fort, and our cavalry and artillery were in pursuit of them. Scindia arrived at Gwalior, and was joyfully received by his people; the Bazeo Baie, with the other ladies, had joined his highness.

Indore.—A report has been received from Indore without date, that the Baie's troops at Sojair, 430 infantry and 150 cavalry, had mutinied for arrears of pay, and had seized the magazine and ten guns.

Nagpore.—Yankut Rao, the rebel zemindar of Arpjeelle, in Chanda district, has been captured by a party of men in the service of Luchmee Baie of Ahiree.

Oude.—On the 13th June, Sir J. H. Grant attacked a rebel force at Nawabgunge, and, after a hard fight of three hours, dispersed the enemy, killing 600 of them, and capturing six guns. Our loss, five killed and forty wounded.

Shahabad.—Ummer Sing's force again left the Jugdespore jungle, on the 14th June, and had gone towards the Soane River to cross into Behar. General Lugard's force had been ordered to cross the Soane at Urwul.

On the 25th June the Secretary to the Government of India sent to the Secretary at the India House a narrative of events in the disturbed districts, compiled from the information received from the authorities in those districts.

Behar.—On the 20th June, a body of rebels was plundering the western parts of the Gya district. On the 21st instant, at 2 o'clock A.M., a party of mutineers and budmashes released the prisoners from the jail at Gya, without, however, doing any other damage. The town was quiet. A body of 156 prisoners was sent from Gya to Sherghotty for safety, but the Nujeebs combined with the prisoners, shot the jemadar, and went off. On the 21st June, Gya was reinforced by a detachment of the Madras Rifles. The Commissioner of Patna reports, date not given, that the Darogah of Jehansbad has been killed by the rebels, and the dak bungalow, moonshee's kutcherri, and thannah, destroyed. An express had been sent to Captain Rattray, commanding Sikh police corps, to hasten his advance.

Gwalior.—Intelligence has been received from Agra, dated 21st June, that Scindia's traitorous treasurer had been captured by a party of the Maharajah's troops which remained faithful. Tantia Topee and the Nawab of Banda were said to be on their way to Sumbulghur and Tezpoore, with four heavy and three horse-artillery guns. On the 22nd instant it was reported that the troops had encountered Scindia's troops near Jowra Alipore, and, after a real or sham contest, had taken their guns. On the 23rd instant, intelligence was received from Agra that Brigadier-General Napier, who was sent in pursuit of the enemy from Gwalior, had overtaken them, killed many, and captured twenty-five guns.

Saran.—A party of 500 rebels crossed the Gogra on the 21st June, at Gylaspore, into this district.

Shahabad.—On the 20th June, the rebels were creating great havoc and destruction on the east side of the Jugdespore jungle, hunting down and murdering all who have done us service.

No. CXXVII.—INSURRECTION IN THE EAST INDIES.

Further Papers, No. 8 A, relative to the Insurrection in the East Indies.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

ON the 9th February, 1858, the President of the Council in India sent to the Court of Directors of the East India Company a copy of correspondence, with a memorandum drawn up by the Judge Advocate-General of the Army, of the circumstances which apparently led to the earlier manifestation of the mutiny of the native army. On the 24th of April, 1857, Brevet-Colonel Smyth communicated to the Major of Brigade at Meerut, that, having ordered a parade to take place for the purpose of showing the men the new mode by which they might load their carbines without biting their cartridges, he was informed that the men of the first troop would not receive their cartridges. He ordered the cartridges to be served out, and with few exceptions they all refused, saying they would get a bad name if they took them, but that if all the regiment would take their cartridges, they would do so. This party consisted of 90 men, and they would not believe that they were not new cartridges. A court of inquiry was thereupon assembled by Major-General Hewitt, commanding the Meerut division, with a view to elicit facts, if possible to elucidate the cause of the refusal of the 3rd Light Cavalry to use the cartridges on the 24th, and to ascertain if there was anything objectionable in them. The court of inquiry was held on the 25th, and having examined many troopers, the havildar and others, they resolved as follows :—"The court having attentively weighed the evidence given before them, are of opinion that no adequate cause can be assigned for the disobedience of Colonel Smyth's orders by the men of the 3rd Light Cavalry, in refusing to receive and use the cartridges that were served out; the only conclusion the court can arrive at in regard to this point is that a report seems to have got abroad, which, in some vague form, attaches suspicion of impurity to the materials used for making these cartridges; but the court are unanimously of opinion that there is nothing whatever objectionable in the cartridges of the 3rd Light Cavalry, and that they might be freely received and used as heretofore, without in the slightest degree affecting any religious scruples of either a Hindoo or Mussulman; and if any pretence contrary to this is urged, that it must be false." When the proceedings of the court of inquiry reached the late Commander-in-Chief, Colonel Anson, accompanied by Colonel Smyth's report, his Excellency ordered the mutinous soldiers, of whom 49 were Mahomedans and 36 were Hindoos, to be tried by a native general court-martial on the charge of having, on the 24th of April, 1857, severally and individually disobeyed the lawful command of their superior officer, Brevet-Colonel C. M. C. Smyth, commanding the 3rd Regiment of Light Cavalry, by not having taken the cartridges tendered to each of them individually for use, that day on parade, when ordered by Colonel Smyth to take the said cartridges. The court

sat on the 6th, 7th, and 8th of May, and was composed of six Mahomedans and nine Hindoos. The result of the trial was that by the votes of fourteen out of the fifteen native officers the whole of the prisoners were convicted and sentenced to hard labour for ten years each. But the court solicited favourable consideration for the prisoners on account of the good character which they had hitherto borne, as testified by their commanding officer, and on account of their having been misled by vague reports regarding the cartridges. Major-General Hewitt approved and confirmed the sentence, and made the following remarks:—"I would willingly attend to the recommendation of the court, if I could find anything in the conduct of the prisoners that would warrant me in so doing. Their former good character has been blasted by present misbehaviour; and their having allowed themselves to be influenced by vague reports, instead of attending to the advice, and obeying the orders, of their European superiors, is the gist of the offence for which they have been condemned. It appears, from these proceedings, that these misguided men, after consultation together, on the night of the 23rd of April, 1857, came to the resolution of refusing their cartridges, having so far forgotten their duty as soldiers. Their next step was, to send word to the troop captains that they would not take cartridges unless the whole of the troops in the station would do so likewise. Some of them even had the insolence to desire that firing parades might be deferred till the agitation about cartridges among the native troops had come to a close. In this state of insubordination they appeared on parade on the morning of the 24th, and then consummated the crime for which they are now to suffer, by repeatedly refusing cartridges that had been made as usual in their regimental magazine, when assured, too, by Colonel Smyth, that the cartridges had no grease on them, that they were old ones, and exactly similar to what had been in use in the regiment for thirty or forty years. Even now they attempt to justify so gross an outrage upon discipline, by alleging that they had doubts of the cartridges: there has been no acknowledgment of error, no expression of regret, no pleading for mercy. To the majority of the prisoners no portion of the sentence will be remitted. I observe, however, that some of them are very young, and I am willing to make allowance for their having been misled by their more experienced comrades; and, under these circumstances, I remit one-half of the sentence passed upon the following men, who have not been more than five years in the service;" and then follow the names of eleven troopers. The prisoners having been delivered over to the civil power on the 9th of May, the native cavalry and infantry at Meerut mutinied on the evening of the following day, and proceeded to Delhi, where they were joined by the native troops at that station. It will be seen that the general court-martial was formed of native officers from all the corps that mutinied on the 10th and 11th of May, and the president of the court-martial, the Subadar-Major of the 38th Light Infantry, was afterwards, it has been said, one of the principal leaders of the mutineers. When a report of the result

of the trial was made to the late General Anson, it was intimated that the mutineers, before being made over to the civil power, were put in irons on the parade-ground, in the presence of their regiment. His Excellency approved of the sentence that had been passed upon the prisoners, but expressed his regret at this unusual procedure. Nothing more was heard regarding the mutineers till the receipt of the telegraphic message giving information of the mutiny, and of their release from gaol.

NO. CXXVIII.—MUTINIES IN INDIA.

Letter from the Court of Directors of the East India Company to the Governor-General of India in Council, dated November 29th, 1857.

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.*]

ON the 29th November, 1857, the Court of Directors wrote to the Governor-General of India in Council, desiring him, as soon as the mutiny is put down and the authority of Government re-established, to appoint a commission, composed of military officers of the armies of the three presidencies, to report as to the proper organization of our army in India. The inquiries to be made by the commission, and the opinions to be offered by them, to have reference to the several branches of the native army—infantry, regular and irregular; cavalry, regular and irregular; artillery and sappers and miners; and with respect to the artillery and sappers and miners, whether they should be composed, as heretofore, of Europeans and natives, or be entirely Europeans.

The Court of Directors desired the Governor-General of India to report also upon the following subjects:—

1st. The state of feeling of the sepoy towards the Government for some time preceding the outbreak.

2nd. Any causes which of late years may be thought likely to have affected their loyalty and devotion to the service.

3rd. Whether their loyalty had been affected by the instigations of emissaries of foreign powers, or native States, or by any general measures of our administration affecting themselves or any other classes of our subjects.

4th. Whether the proposed use of the new cartridges was to any, and what, extent the cause of the outbreak.

5th. Whether the objects which the mutineers are supposed to have had in view were directed to the subversion of the British power in India, or to the attainment of pecuniary or other advantages.

6th. Whether the progress of the mutiny can be traced to general combination or concert, or was the result of separate impulses at the several stations of regiments; and, if the former, how the combination was carried on without any knowledge or suspicion of it on the part of the regimental officers.

No. CXXIX.—EAST INDIA (MUTINIES).

Copy of a Letter from the Governor-General of India in Council to the Court of Directors of the East India Company, dated the 16th of December, 1857, No. 144, with the Resolution of the Government of India, dated the 31st of July, 1857, &c. (144.) 4th February, 1858.

ON the 11th December, 1857, the Governor-General in Council communicated to the Court of Directors the measures taken for the punishment of those who have been guilty of mutiny, desertion, and rebellion during the recent disturbances in India; and answered the complaints made against the Government of India that the country was not put under martial law, after the occurrence of the mutinies. The country was put under martial law wherever it was necessary, and as soon as it could answer any good purpose to do so; but, besides martial law, other acts were passed for the summary trial of mutineers, &c.

On the 30th May, when it was known that the mutiny of the sepoys had been followed in many places by rebellion of the populace, Act No. XI. of 1857 was passed. By this law persons guilty of rebellion or of waging war against the Queen or the Government, or of aiding or abetting therein, were rendered liable to the punishment of death, and to the forfeiture of all their property, and the crime of harbouring rebels, &c., was made heavily punishable: the Supreme and local Executive Governments were empowered to issue a commission in any district in a state of rebellion for the trial of rebels or persons charged with any other crime against the State, or with any heinous crime against person or property; the commissioners were empowered to act singly, and were vested with absolute and final powers of judgment and execution without the presence of law officers or assessors; and finally, the possession of arms in any district in which it might be prohibited by the Executive Government was made penal.

By Act No. XIV. of 1857, passed on the 6th June, provision was made for the punishment of persons convicted of exciting mutiny or sedition in the army, the offender was rendered liable to the punishment of death and the forfeiture of all his property, and persons guilty of harbouring such offenders were made liable to heavy punishment. Power was also given to general courts-martial to try all persons, whether amenable to the articles of war or not, charged with any offence punishable by this or the preceding Act; and the Supreme and local Executive Governments were authorized to issue commissions in any district for the trial, by single commissioners, without the assistance of law officers or assessors, and with absolute and final power of judgment and execution, of any crime against the State, or any heinous offence whatever; the term "heinous offence" being declared to include every crime attended with great personal violence, or committed with the intention of forwarding the designs of those who are waging war against the State. By Act No. XVI. of 1857, all heinous offences committed in any district under martial law or in any district to which this Act might be extended, were made punishable by death, transportation, or imprisonment, and by forfeiture of all property and effects. These enormous powers have been largely exercised. They have been intrusted, not to military officers only, but to civil officers and trustworthy persons not con-

nected with the Government, who, under martial law properly so called, would have had no authority; and the law has thereby been put in force in parts of the country where there were few troops and no officers to spare for such purpose. In all the three above-mentioned Acts, Nos. XI., XIV., and XVI., European British subjects are expressly exempted from their operation. By Act No. XVII. of 1857, power was given to sessions judges, and to any person or persons, civil or military, to whom the Executive Government might issue a commission for the purpose, to try for mutiny or desertion any person subject to the articles of war for the native army, with final powers of judgment and execution. Police officers were empowered to arrest without warrant persons suspected of being mutineers and deserters; and zemindars and others were made penally responsible for giving early intelligence of persons suspected of mutiny or desertion resorting to their estates. Lastly, by Act No. XXV. of 1857, the property and effects of all persons amenable to the articles of war for the native army, guilty of mutiny, were declared forfeit, and stringent means were provided for the seizure of such property or effects, and for the adjudication of forfeiture in all cases, whether the guilty person be convicted, or whether he die or escape before trial.

It afterwards came to the knowledge of the Government, both officially and through private channels, that in some instances the powers given to special commissioners were being abused, or at least used without proper discretion, and that capital punishment was inflicted for trivial offences committed during a period of anarchy, and on evidence which, under ordinary circumstances, would not have been received, and that in some quarters the fact of a man being a sepoy was enough, in the state of excited feeling which then prevailed, to ensure his apprehension and immediate execution as a deserter.

It was to put a stop to these excesses that the resolutions of the 31st July were passed, containing directions to civil officers respecting the punishment of mutineers, deserters, and rebels, and the burning of villages; and the effect of the resolution as regards the native public in the Bengal presidency, the vast majority of whom have shown no sympathy with the rebellion, has been to allay in a great measure the apprehension of a general and indiscriminate war against Hindoos and Mussulmans, guilty or not guilty, in revenge for the massacres of Delhi, Cawnpore, and Jhansee, which evil-disposed persons have industriously raised.

Resolution of the Government of India, 31st July, 1857.

The Governor-General of India in Council has observed with approbation the zealous exertions of the local civil authorities for the apprehension and condign punishment of the mutineers and deserters concerned in the present revolt. It was necessary, by the severe and prompt punishment of such of these criminals as found their way into the districts in our possession, where the minds of the native troops could not but be in a very unsettled state, though the men, for the most part, had abstained from open mutiny, to show that the just fate of the mutineer is death, and that the British Government was powerful to inflict the penalty. It was necessary also, by the offer of rewards for the apprehension of all deserters, to check the crime of desertion, which was becoming rife in some of these regiments, and to prevent the possible escape of men who, apparently mere deserters, had

been concerned in such terrible atrocities that their apprehension and condign punishment was an imperative duty.

But lest measures of extreme severity should be too hastily resorted to, or carried too far, his lordship in council thinks it right to issue detailed instructions on this subject, by which all civil officers will be guided in the exercise of their powers in the cases of mutineers, deserters and rebels.

There is reason to believe that in some even of those native regiments whose revolt has been stained by the most sanguinary atrocities, some men may have distinguished themselves from the mass by protecting an officer. In some such cases men of very guilty regiments possess certificates in their favour from officers of their regiments; but there may be others equally deserving of clemency who are without any such ready means of clearing themselves from the presumptive evidence of their deep guilt.

Where the number of men guilty of what it is impossible to pardon is so great, the Government will gladly seize every opportunity of reducing the work of retribution before it, by giving a free pardon to all who can show that they have a claim to mercy on this ground, provided they have not been guilty of any heinous crime against person or property, or aided or abetted others in the commission of any such crime.

It is understood that in regiments which mutinied and for the most part went over to the rebels, without murdering their officers or committing any other sanguinary outrage, there were men who appeared to have had no heart in the revolt, though they failed in their duty as soldiers, and who have evinced their peaceable disposition, and their want of sympathy with those who are now armed in open rebellion against the Government, by dispersing to the villages when their regiment broke up, and mixing quietly with the rural population. It is desirable to treat such men with all reasonable leniency.

The Governor-General in Council therefore deems it necessary to lay down the following rules for the guidance of civil authorities, in exercising the powers vested in them by recent legislation for the punishment of native officers and soldiers charged with mutiny or desertion.

1st. No native officer or soldier belonging to a regiment which has not mutinied is to be punished by the civil power as a mere deserter, unless he be found or apprehended with arms in his possession. Such men, when taken before or apprehended by the civil power, are to be sent back to their regiments whenever that can be done, there to be dealt with by the military authorities. When such men cannot be sent back to their regiments immediately, they should be detained in prison pending the orders of Government, to whom a report is to be made, addressed to the Secretary to Government in the Military Department.

2nd. Native officers and soldiers being mutineers or deserters, taken before or apprehended by the civil power, not found or apprehended with arms in their possession, not charged with any specific act of rebellion, and belonging to a regiment which has mutinied, but has not been guilty of the murder of its officers or of any other sanguinary crime, are to be sent to Allahabad, or to such other place as Government may hereafter order, and are there to be made over to the commandant, to be dealt with by the military authorities. Should any difficulty arise in sending the offender to Allahabad, either by reason of its distance from the place of arrest or otherwise, the offender should be imprisoned until the orders of Government can be obtained, unless, for special reasons, it may be necessary to

punish the offender forthwith, in which case a report will immediately afterwards be made to the Government.

3rd. Every mutineer or deserter who may be taken before or apprehended by the civil authorities, and who may be found to belong to a regiment which killed any European officer, or other European, or committed any other sanguinary outrage, may be tried and punished by the civil power. If the prisoner can show that he was not present at the murder or other outrage, or, if present, that he did his utmost to prevent it, full particulars of the case should be reported to Government in the military department, before the sentence, whatever it be, is carried into effect. Otherwise, the sentence should be carried into effect forthwith.

4th. If it cannot be ascertained to what regiment a mutineer or deserter taken before or apprehended by the civil authorities belonged, he is to be dealt with as provided above by the second rule.

Lists showing the several regiments and detachments which have mutinied will be prepared with all practicable despatch in the military department, stating in each case all known particulars of the mutiny, and accompanied by nominal rolls, with appropriate remarks opposite to the names of those native officers and men who are known to have been absent from their regiments at the time of the mutiny, and of those who, if present, are known to have taken an active part either in promoting or suppressing the mutiny, or to have simply joined, or abstained from joining it. These nominal rolls, as soon as prepared, will be printed and circulated to all civil officers and to military officers in command.

The Governor-General in Council is anxious to prevent measures of extreme severity being unnecessarily resorted to, or carried to excess, or applied without due discrimination, in regard to acts of rebellion committed by persons not mutineers.

It is unquestionably necessary, in the first attempt to restore order in a district in which the civil authority has been entirely overthrown, to administer the law with such promptitude and severity as will strike terror into the minds of the evil disposed among the people, and will induce them by the fear of death to abstain from plunder, to restore stolen property, and to return to peaceful occupations. But this object once in a great degree attained, the punishment of crimes should be regulated with discrimination.

The continued administration of the law in its utmost severity after the requisite impression has been made upon the rebellious and disorderly, and after order has been partially restored, would have the effect of exasperating the people, and would probably induce them to band together in large numbers for the protection of their lives, and with a view to retaliation—a result much to be deprecated. It would greatly add to the difficulties of settling the country hereafter, if a spirit of animosity against their rulers were engendered in the minds of the people, and if their feelings were embittered by the remembrance of needless bloodshed. The civil officers in every district should endeavour, without condoning any heinous offences or making any promises of pardon for such offences, to encourage all persons to return to their usual occupations, and, punishing only such of the principal offenders as can be apprehended, to postpone as far as possible all minute inquiry into political offences, until such time as the Government is in a position to deal with them in strength after thorough investigation. It may be necessary, however, even after a district is partially restored to order, to make examples, from time to time, of such persons, if any, who may be

guilty of serious outrages against person or property, or who, by stopping the dāk, or injuring the electric telegraph, or otherwise, may endeavour to promote the designs of those who are waging war against the State.

Another point to be noticed, in connection with this subject, is the general burning of villages, which the Governor-General in Council has reason to fear may have been carried too far by some of the civil officers employed in restoring order.

A severe measure of this sort is doubtless necessary, as an example, in some cases where the mass of the inhabitants of a village have committed a grave outrage, and the perpetrators cannot be punished in their persons; but any approach to a wholesale destruction of property by the officers of Government, without due regard to the guilt or innocence of those who are affected by it, must be strongly reprehended. Apart from the effect which such a practice would have upon the feelings and disposition of the country people, there can be no doubt that it would prevent them from returning to their villages, and resuming the cultivation of their fields, a point at this season of vital importance, inasmuch as if the lands remain much longer unsown, distress, and even famine, may be added to the other difficulties with which the Government will have to contend.

No. CXXX.—EAST INDIA MUTINIES.

Copy of a Letter from the Secret Committee of the Court of Directors of the East India Company to the Governor-General of India in Council, dated the 24th day of March, 1858, relative to the Policy to be pursued towards the Natives of Provinces lately in a state of hostility. (Mr. Henry Baillie.)
26th April, 1858. (229.)

ON the 24th March, 1858, the Secret Committee of the Court of Directors of the East India Company wrote to the Governor-General of India in Council as follows:—

The telegram from Calcutta, dated the 22nd ultimo, which arrived this morning, conveys intelligence of the concentration of the force under the Commander-in-Chief, and of that under Jung Bahadoor, upon Lucknow; and we trust we may indulge the expectation that, ere this, that city has been evacuated by the rebels, and that no considerable corps remains united against us in the field. If this happy result should have been attained, it will be very satisfactory to us to learn that you have deemed yourselves sufficiently strong to be enabled to act towards the people with the generosity, as well as the justice, which are congenial to the British character. Crimes have been committed against us which it would be a crime to forgive; and some large exceptions there must be, of the persons guilty of such crimes, from any act of amnesty which could be granted; but it must be as impossible, as it would be abhorrent from our feelings, to inflict the extreme penalty which the law might strictly award upon all who have swerved from their allegiance.

To us it appears that, whenever open resistance shall have ceased, it would be prudent, in awarding punishment, rather to follow the practice which prevails after the conquest of a country which has defended itself to the last by desperate war, than that which may perhaps be lawfully adopted

after the suppression of mutiny and rebellion, such acts always being excepted from forgiveness or mitigation of punishment as have exceeded the licence of legitimate hostilities.

While we may be unable to forget the insanity which, during the last ten months, has pervaded the army and a large portion of the people, we should at the same time remember the previous fidelity of a hundred years, and so conduct ourselves towards those who have erred as to remove their delusions and their fears, and re-establish, if we can, that confidence which was so long the foundation of our power. It would be desirable that, in every case, the disarming of a district, either by the seizure of arms or by their surrender, should precede the application to it of any amnesty; but there may be circumstances which would render expedient a different course of proceeding. Upon these exceptional cases, you and the officers acting under your orders must decide. The disarming of a district having been effected, with exceptions, under your licence, in favour of native gentlemen, whose feelings of honour would be affected by being deprived of the privilege of wearing arms, and of any other persons in whom you may confide, we think the possession of arms should be punished in every case by a severe penalty; but, unless the possession of arms should be combined with other acts, leading to the conclusion that they were retained for the perpetration of crimes, that penalty should not be death. Of course the possession of arms by Englishmen must always remain lawful.

Death has of late been but too common a punishment. It loses whatever terror it might otherwise have when so indiscriminately applied; but, in fact, in India there is not commonly a fear of death, although there ever must be a fear of pain. In every amnestied district the ordinary administration of the law should as soon as possible be restored. In carrying these views into execution, you may meet with obstruction from those who, maddened by the scenes they have witnessed, may desire to substitute their own policy for that of the Government; but persevere firmly in doing what you may think right; make those who would counteract you, feel that you are resolved to rule, and that you will be served by none who will not obey. Acting in this spirit, you may rely upon our unqualified support.

No. CXXXI.—EAST INDIA (OUDE).

Copy of a Letter from the Secretary to the Government of India, to the Secretary to the Chief Commissioner in Oude, dated 3rd March, 1858, and of the Proclamation enclosed therein and ordered to be published in Oude; and of a Letter from the Secret Committee of the Court of Directors of the East India Company to the Governor-General of India in Council, dated 19th April, 1858, relative to that Proclamation. (Mr. H. Baillie.) 7th May, 1858. (265.)

On the 3rd March, 1858, the Secretary to the Government of India enclosed to the Secretary to the Chief Commissioner of Oude a copy of a proclamation to be issued by the Chief Commissioner at Lucknow so soon as the British troops should have possession or command of the city. The proclamation was addressed to the chiefs and inhabitants of Oude only, and

not to the sepoys. To the mutineers, the Governor-General did not intend that any overture should be made. The sole promise which could be made to any mutineer was that his life should be spared; and this promise was not to be made if the man belonged to a regiment which had murdered its officers, or if there were other *prima facie* reason to suppose that he had been implicated in any specially atrocious crime. The proclamation was as follows:—

PROCLAMATION.

The army of his Excellency the Commander-in-Chief is in possession of Lucknow, and the city lies at the mercy of the British Government, whose authority it has, for nine months, rebelliously defied and resisted. This resistance, begun by a mutinous soldiery, has found support from the inhabitants of the city, and of the province of Oude at large. Many who owed their prosperity to the British Government, as well as those who believed themselves aggrieved by it, have joined in this bad cause, and have ranged themselves with the enemies of the State. They have been guilty of a great crime, and have subjected themselves to a just retribution. The capital of their country is now once more in the hands of the British troops. From this day it will be held by a force which nothing can withstand, and the authority of the Government will be carried into every corner of the province.

The time, then, has come at which the Right Honourable the Governor-General of India deems it right to make known the mode in which the British Government will deal with the talookdars, chiefs, and landholders of Oude and their followers. The first care of the Governor-General will be to reward those who have been steadfast in their allegiance at a time when the authority of the Government was partially overborne, and who have proved this by the support and assistance which they have given to British officers. Therefore the Right Honourable the Governor-General hereby declares that Drigbiggei Singh, Rajah of Bulrampoor, Koolwunt Singh, Rajah of Pudnaha, Rao Hurdeo Buksh Singh of Kutiaree, Kashee Pershad, talookdar of Sissaindee, Zubr Singh, zemindar of Gopal Khair, and Chundee Lal, zemindar of Moraon (Baiswarah), are henceforward the sole hereditary proprietors of the lands which they held when Oude came under British rule, subject only to such moderate assessment as may be imposed upon them; and that these loyal men will be further rewarded in such manner and to such extent as, upon consideration of their merits and their position, the Governor-General shall determine. A proportionate measure of reward and honour, according to their deserts, will be conferred upon others, in whose favour like claims may be established to the satisfaction of the Government.

The Governor-General further proclaims to the people of Oude that, with the above-mentioned exceptions, the proprietary right in the soil of the province is confiscated to the British Government, which will dispose of that right in such manner as to it may seem fitting. To those talookdars, chiefs, and landholders, with their followers, who shall make immediate submission to the Chief Commissioner of Oude, surrendering their arms and obeying his orders, the Right Honourable the Governor-General promises that their lives and honour shall be safe, provided that their hands are not stained with English blood murderously shed. But as regards any

further indulgence which may be extended to them, and the condition in which they may hereafter be placed, they must throw themselves upon the justice and mercy of the British Government. As participation in the murder of English men or English women will exclude those who are guilty of it from all mercy, so will those who have protected English lives be entitled to consideration and leniency.

On the 19th April, 1858, the Secret Committee of the Court of Directors of the East India Company transmitted the following letter to the Governor-General of India in Council, with respect to the above proclamation :—

Our letter of the 24th of March, 1858, will have put you in possession of our general views with respect to the treatment of the people in the event of the evacuation of Lucknow by the enemy.

On the 12th instant, we received from you a copy of the letter dated the 3rd of March, addressed by your secretary to the secretary to the Chief Commissioner in Oude, which letter enclosed a copy of the proclamation to be issued by the Chief Commissioner, as soon as the British troops should have command of the city of Lucknow, and conveyed instructions as to the manner in which he was to act with respect to different classes of persons in execution of the views of the Governor-General. The people of Oude will see only the proclamation. That authoritative expression of the will of the Government, informs the people that six persons, who are named as having been steadfast in their allegiance, are henceforward the sole hereditary proprietors of the lands they held when Oude came under British rule, subject only to such moderate assessment as may be imposed upon them; that others, in whose favour like claims may be established, will have conferred upon them a proportionate measure of reward and honour; and that, with these exceptions, the proprietary right in the soil of the province is confiscated to the British Government. We cannot but express to you our apprehension that this decree, pronouncing the disinheritance of a people, will throw difficulties almost insurmountable in the way of the re-establishment of peace. We are under the impression that the war in Oude has derived much of its popular character from the rigorous manner in which, without regard to what the chief landholders had become accustomed to consider as their rights, the summary settlement had in a large portion of the province been carried out by your officers. The landholders of India are as much attached to the soil occupied by their ancestors, and are as sensitive with respect to the rights in the soil they deem themselves to possess, as the occupiers of land in any country of which we have a knowledge. Whatever may be your ultimate and undisclosed intentions, your proclamation will appear to deprive the great body of the people of all hope upon the subject most dear to them as individuals; while the substitution of our rule for that of their native sovereign has naturally excited against us whatever they may have of national feeling. We cannot but in justice consider, that those who resist our authority in Oude, are under very different circumstances from those who have acted against us in provinces which have been long under our government. We dethroned the King of Oude, and took possession of his kingdom, by virtue of a treaty which had been subsequently modified by another treaty, under which, had it been held to be in force, the course we adopted could not have been lawfully pursued; but we held that it was not in force; although

the fact of its not having been ratified in England, as regarded the provision on which we rely for our justification, had not been previously made known to the King of Oude. That sovereign and his ancestors had been uniformly faithful to their treaty engagements with us, however ill they may have governed their subjects. They had more than once assisted us in our difficulties, and not a suspicion had ever been entertained of any hostile disposition on their part towards our Government. Suddenly the people saw their king taken from amongst them, and our administration substituted for his, which, however bad, was at least native; and this sudden change of government was immediately followed by a summary settlement of the revenue, which, in a very considerable portion of the province, deprived the most influential landholders of what they deemed to be their property; of what certainly had long given wealth, and distinction, and power to their families. We must admit that, under the circumstances, the hostilities which have been carried on in Oude have rather the character of legitimate war than that of rebellion, and the people of Oude should rather be regarded with indulgent consideration than made the objects of a penalty, exceeding in extent and in severity almost any which has been recorded in history as inflicted upon a subdued nation. Other conquerors, when they have succeeded in overcoming resistance, have excepted a few persons as still deserving of punishment, but have, with a generous policy, extended their clemency to the great body of the people. You have acted upon a different principle; you have reserved a few as deserving of special favour, and you have struck, with what they will feel as the severest of punishment, the mass of the inhabitants of the country. We cannot but think that the precedents from which you have departed will appear to have been conceived in a spirit of wisdom superior to that which appears in the precedent you have made. We desire that you will mitigate, in practice, the stringent severity of the decree of confiscation you have issued against the landholders of Oude. We desire to see British authority in India rest upon the willing obedience of a contented people. There cannot be contentment where there is general confiscation. Government cannot long be maintained by any force in a country where the whole people is rendered hostile by a sense of wrong; and if it were possible so to maintain it, it would not be a consummation to be desired.

No. CXXXII.—EAST INDIA GOVERNOR-GENERAL.

Copy of Letter from the Court of Directors of the East India Company to the Governor-General of India in Council. (278.)

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

On the 5th of May, 1858, the Court of Directors of the East India Company addressed the following letter to the Governor-General of India in Council:—

You will have received, by the mail of the 25th of March, a letter from the Secret Committee, which has since been laid before us, respecting the policy which it becomes you to pursue towards those natives of India who have recently been in arms against the authority of the British Government.

That letter emphatically confirms the principles which you have already adopted, as set forth in your circular of the 31st of July, 1857, by impressing upon you the propriety of pursuing, after the conquest of the revolted provinces, a course of policy distinguished by a wise and discriminating generosity. You are exhorted to temper justice with mercy, and, except in cases of extreme criminality, to grant an amnesty to the vanquished. In the sentiments expressed by the Secret Committee we entirely concur. Whilst there are some crimes which humanity calls upon you to punish with the utmost severity, there are others of a less aggravated character, which it would be equally unjust and impolitic not to pardon and to forget.

The offences with which you will be called upon to deal are of three different kinds. Firstly, high crimes, instigated by malice prepense, and aggravated by treachery and cruelty. Secondly, offences, the results rather of weakness than of malice, into which it is believed that many have been drawn by the contamination of example, by the fear of opposing themselves to their more powerful countrymen, or by the belief that they have been compromised by the acts of their associates, rather than by any active desire to embarrass the existing Government. And, thirdly, offences of a less positive character, amounting to little more than passive connivance at evil, or at most to the act of giving such assistance to the rebels as, if not given, would have been forcibly extorted, and which, in many cases, it would have been death to refuse to bodies of licentious and exasperated mutineers.

It is the first only of these offences, the perpetrators of which, and their accomplices, it will be your duty to visit with the severest penalty which you can inflict; and it is, happily, in such cases of exceptional atrocity, that you will have the least difficulty in proving both the commission of the offence and the identity of the offender. In the other cases you might often be left in doubt, not only of the extent of the offence committed, but of its actual commission by the accused persons; and, although we are aware that the retribution which may be righteously inflicted upon the guilty may be in some measure restricted by too much nicety of specification, and that, in dealing with so large a mass of crime, it is difficult to avoid the commission of some acts of individual injustice, we may still express our desire that the utmost exertion may be made to confine within the smallest possible compass these cases of uncertain proof and dubious identity, even though your retributory measures should thus fall short of what in strict justice might be inflicted.

As soon as you have suppressed the active hostility of the enemy, your first care will be the restoration of public confidence. It will be your privilege, when the disorganized provinces shall no longer be convulsed by intestine disorder, to set an example of toleration and forbearance towards the subject people, and to endeavour, by every means consistent with the security of the British Empire in the East, to allay the irritation and suspicion which, if suffered to retain possession of the minds of the native and European inhabitants of the country, will eventually lead to nothing less calamitous than a war of races.

In dealing with the people of Oude, you will, doubtless, be moved by special considerations of justice and of policy. Throughout the recent contest, we have ever regarded such of the inhabitants of that country as, not being sepoys or pensioners of our own army, have been in arms against us, as an exceptional class. They cannot be considered as traitors or even

rebels, for they had not pledged their fidelity to us, and they had scarcely become our subjects. Many, by the introduction of a new system of government, had necessarily been deprived of the maintenance they had latterly enjoyed; and others feared that the speedy loss of their means of subsistence must follow from the same course. It was natural that such persons should avail themselves of the opportunity presented by the distracted state of the country to strike a blow for the restoration of the native rule, under which the permitted disorganization of the country had so long been to them a source of unlawful profit. Neither the disbanded soldiers of the late native Government, nor the great talookdars and their retainers, were under any obligation of fidelity to our Government for benefits conferred upon them. You would be justified, therefore, in dealing with them as you would with a foreign enemy, and in ceasing to consider them objects of punishment after they have once laid down their arms.

Of these arms they must for ever be deprived. You will, doubtless, in prosecution of this object address yourself, in the first instance, to the case of the great talookdars, who so successfully defied the late Government, and many of whom, with large bodies of armed men, appear to have aided the efforts of the mutinous soldiery of the Bengal army. The destruction of the fortified strongholds of these powerful landholders, the forfeiture of their remaining guns, the disarming and disbanding of their followers, will be among your first works. But whilst you are depriving this influential and once dangerous class of people of their power of openly resisting your authority, you will, we have no doubt, exert yourself, by every possible means, to reconcile them to British rule, and encourage them, by liberal arrangements made in accordance with ancient usages, to become industrious agriculturists, and to employ in the cultivation of the soil the men who, as armed retainers, have so long wasted the substance of their masters, and desolated the land. We believe that these landowners may be taught that their holdings will be more profitable to them, under a strong Government, capable of maintaining the peace of the country, and severely punishing agrarian outrages, than under one which perpetually invites, by its weakness, the ruinous arbitration of the sword.

Having thus endeavoured, on the re-establishment of the authority of the British Government in Oude, to reassure the great landholders, you will proceed to consider, in the same spirit of toleration and forbearance, the condition of the great body of the people. You will bear in mind that it is necessary, in a transition state from one Government to another, to deal tenderly with existing usages, and sometimes even with existing abuses. All precipitate reforms are dangerous. It is often wiser even to tolerate evil for a time than to alarm and to irritate the minds of the people by the sudden introduction of changes which time can alone teach them to appreciate, or even, perhaps, to understand. You will be especially careful, in the readjustment of the fiscal system of the province, to avoid the imposition of unaccustomed taxes, whether of a general or of a local character, pressing heavily upon the industrial resources and affecting the daily comforts of the people. We do not estimate the successful administration of a newly acquired province according to the financial results of the first few years. At such a time, we should endeavour to conciliate the people by wise concessions, and to do nothing to encourage the belief that the British Government is more covetous of revenue than the native ruler whom it has supplanted.

No. CXXXIII.—EAST INDIA TERRITORIAL REVENUES AND DISBURSEMENTS.

Accounts respecting the Territorial Revenues and Disbursements of the East India Company for the year 1856-7, with an Estimate of the same for the succeeding Year. 29th July, 1858. (486.)

THE gross receipt for the year 1856-7 amounted to 29,702,854*l.*; allowances, refunds, and drawbacks, 89,281*l.*; net receipts, 29,613,573*l.* The payments out of the income, including charges of collection, cost and charges of salt and opium, &c., were 6,343,481*l.*, leaving a net receipt into the several Government treasuries of 23,270,092*l.* The ordinary revenue was derived from the following sources:—Land revenue, including tributes and subsidies from native States, net receipts, 14,349,966*l.*; customs, 1,811,615*l.*; salt, 1,960,226*l.*; opium, 3,619,115*l.*; stamp duties, 543,007*l.*; Mint receipts, 246,009*l.*; other receipts, 852,501*l.* The cost of collection of the land revenue was 8·881 per cent.; of the customs, 5·475 per cent.; of salt, including the cost, 22·142 per cent., and excluding the cost, 11·191 per cent. Of opium, including the cost, 22·829 per cent., and excluding the cost, 3·221 per cent.; and of stamp duties, 4·559 per cent. The net revenue of the presidency of Bengal amounted to 10,284,733*l.*, including—land revenue, 3,159,485*l.*; customs, 1,315,440*l.*; opium, 2,531,918*l.*; salt, 633,119*l.*; revenue from the territory ceded by the Burmese, 551,336*l.*; from the Nagpore territory, 337,463*l.*; from the Oude territory, 841,816*l.*; stamp duties, 213,770*l.*; Mint receipts, 148,567*l.*

The net receipts of the North-Western Provinces amounted to 5,779,130*l.*, including—land revenue, 4,119,231*l.*; salt, 514,127*l.*; stamp duties, 162,228*l.*; customs, 36,486*l.*; Punjaub and Trans-Indus territory, 935,973*l.*

The net receipts of the presidency of Madras amounted to 4,044,808*l.*, including—land revenue, 3,363,589*l.*; customs, 117,137*l.*; salt, 437,698*l.* The net receipts of the presidency of Bombay amounted to 3,161,421*l.*, including—land revenue, 1,179,011*l.*; customs, 269,470*l.*; salt, 210,549*l.*; opium, 1,087,197*l.* The total expenditure of India for the year amounted to 29,846,451*l.*, which, with a gross income of 29,702,854*l.*, left an excess of expenditure of 143,597*l.* The expenditure was as follows:—Charges in India, civil and political establishments, 2,446,856*l.*; judicial and police charges, 2,585,626*l.*; buildings, roads, and public works, exclusive of repairs and of military buildings, 1,886,515*l.*; military, 10,121,050*l.*; navy, 622,313*l.*; charges of Prince of Wales' Island, 62,351*l.*; Mint charges, 78,751*l.*; interest on debt, 2,100,554*l.* Total charges in India, 19,884,016*l.* Charges in England, dividends to proprietors of East India stock, 627,893*l.*; interest on home bond debt, 155,494*l.*; furlough and retired pay of military officers, 787,333*l.*; Queen's troops serving in India, 250,000*l.*; value of stores consigned to India, 955,345*l.*; other charges, 753,609*l.* Total charges in England, 3,529,673*l.* Direct claims and demands upon the revenue, including charges of collection and cost of salt and opium, 6,432,762*l.* Total, 29,846,451*l.* On the 30th April, 1857, the registered

debt of India amounted to 52,074,986*l.*, bearing an annual amount of interest of 2,221,499*l.* Of this debt, 48,808,641*l.* belonged to Bengal, 238,406*l.* to the North-Western Provinces, 1,405,164*l.* to Madras, and 1,622,775*l.* to Bombay. The capital of the home bond debt, on the 30th April, 1857, was 3,894,400*l.*

The estimated total income of the revenue of India, for the year ending 30th April, 1858, was 27,644,214*l.*, and of the expenditure, 36,949,119*l.*, leaving an excess of expenditure over income, including charges defrayed in England, 9,304,905*l.*

No. CXXXIV.—EAST INDIA HOME ACCOUNTS.

Home Accounts of the East India Company. (348.) 18th June, 1858.

THE receipts for the year, from the 1st May, 1857, to 30th April, 1858, amounted to 12,399,077*l.* 0*s.* 8*d.*, and the disbursement, 11,089,420*l.* 9*s.* 10*d.* The debts of the Government of India on the 1st May, 1858, amounted to 14,794,275*l.*, and the credits, including cash balances, value of building, &c., 5,535,298*l.* The East India House was valued at 270,000*l.* The establishment of the East India Company in England had 498 officers, with an aggregate salary of 130,194*l.*

No. CXXXV.—EAST INDIA PROCLAMATION.

Copy of Letter of the Secretary of the Chief Commissioner in Oude to the Secretary of the Governor-General, dated Lucknow, the 8th March, 1858, with reference to the issue of the Proclamation to the People of Oude. (Mr. Chancellor of the Exchequer.) 20th May, 1858. (289.)

ON the 8th March, 1858, the secretary to the Chief Commissioner in Oude wrote to the secretary to the Government of India with reference to the proclamation to be issued to the landholders, chiefs, and inhabitants of Oude, that in the opinion of the Chief Commissioner there were not a dozen landholders in the province who have not themselves borne arms against us, or sent a representative to the durbar, or assisted the rebel government with men or money. The effect of the proclamation, therefore, would be to confiscate the entire proprietary right in the soil; and, this being the case, it would of course be hopeless to attempt to enlist the landowners on the side of order; on the contrary, it was the Chief Commissioner's firm conviction that as soon as the chiefs and talookdars became acquainted with the determination of the Government to confiscate their rights, they would betake themselves at once to their domains and prepare for a desperate and prolonged resistance. The Chief Commissioner deemed the matter of such vital importance, that, at the risk of being deemed importunate, he ventured to submit his views once more, in the hope that the Governor-General might yet be induced to reconsider the subject. He was of opinion that the landholders had been most unjustly treated under our settlement operations, and, even had they

not been so, it would have required a degree of fidelity on their part quite foreign to the usual character of an Asiatic to have remained faithful to our Government under the shocks to which it was exposed in Oude. In fact, it was not till our rule was virtually at an end, the whole country overrun, and the capital in the hands of the rebel soldiery, that the talookdars, smarting as they were under the loss of their lands, sided against us. The Chief Commissioner thought, therefore, that they ought hardly to be considered as rebels, but rather as honourable enemies, to whom terms, such as they could without loss of dignity accept, should be offered at the termination of the campaign.

If these men had their lands restored, they would at once aid us in restoring order, and a police would soon be organized with their co-operation, which would render unnecessary the presence of our enormous army to re-establish tranquillity and confidence. But if their life and freedom from imprisonment only be offered, they will resist; and the Chief Commissioner foresaw that we should be only at the commencement of a guerilla war for the extirpation, root and branch, of this class of men, which would involve the loss of thousands of Europeans by battle, disease, and exposure. It must be borne in mind that this species of warfare has always been peculiarly harassing to our Indian forces, and would be far more so at present when we are without a native army.

For the above reasons, the Chief Commissioner earnestly requested that such landholders and chiefs as have not been accomplices in the cold-blooded murder of Europeans might be enlisted on our side by the restoration of their ancient possessions, subject to such restrictions as will protect their dependants from oppression. If his lordship agreed to this proposition, it was not yet too late to communicate his assent by electric telegraph before the fall of the city, which would probably not take place for some days. Should no such communication be received, the Chief Commissioner would act upon his present instructions, satisfied that he had done all in his power to convince his lordship that they would be ineffectual to re-establish our rule on a firm basis in Oude.

In answer to this communication, the Secretary of the Government of India desired the Chief Commissioner of Oude to insert the following clause in the proclamation after the paragraph which ends "justice and mercy of the British Government:"—

"To those amongst them who shall promptly come forward, and give to the Chief Commissioner their support in the restoration of peace and order, this indulgence will be large, and the Governor-General will be ready to view liberally the claims which they may thus acquire to a restitution of their former rights."

This clause would add little or nothing to the Commissioner's discretionary power, but it might serve to indicate more clearly to the talookdars the liberal spirit in which the Governor-General is prepared to review and reciprocate any advances on their part.

No. CXXXVI.—INCOME AND EXPENDITURE (EAST INDIA).

Accounts showing the Total Income and Expenditure, and the Surplus and Deficiency of the several Presidencies and subordinate Governments of British India, during each of the ten Years ending 30th April, 1857, &c. (Lord Monteagle of Brandon.) (384.) 18th February, 1858.

In the year 1847–48 the income was 23,351,338*l.* and the expenditure 22,247,252*l.*, leaving a net surplus of 1,104,086*l.* In Bengal there was a deficit of 2,464,985*l.*; in the North-Western Provinces a surplus of 3,866,820*l.*; in Madras a surplus of 265,143*l.*; and in Bombay a deficit of 562,892*l.* In the year 1848–49 the total income was 23,808,827*l.* and the expenditure 22,269,144*l.*, showing a net surplus of 1,539,683*l.* In Bengal there was a deficit of 2,187,309*l.*; in the North-Western Provinces a surplus of 3,734,878*l.*; in Madras a surplus of 445,740*l.*; and in Bombay a deficit of 453,626*l.* In the year 1849–50 the total income was 25,802,047*l.* and the expenditure 22,696,923*l.*, showing a net surplus of 3,105,683*l.* In Bengal there was a deficit of 1,318,641*l.*; in the North-Western Provinces a surplus of 3,956,976*l.*; in the Punjaub a surplus of 571,342*l.*; in Madras a surplus of 404,696*l.*; and in Bombay a surplus of 509,249*l.* In the year 1850–51 the income was 25,898,177*l.* and the expenditure 22,765,548*l.*, showing a surplus of 3,132,629*l.* In Bengal there was a deficit of 1,368,613*l.*; in the North-Western Provinces a surplus of 3,711,024*l.*; in the Punjaub a surplus of 719,127*l.*; in Madras a surplus of 412,600*l.*; and in Bombay a deficit of 341,509*l.* In the year 1851–52 the income was 26,189,428*l.* and the expenditure 23,151,786*l.*, showing a net surplus of 3,037,642*l.* In Bengal there was a deficit of 1,495,186*l.*; in the North-Western Provinces a surplus of 3,814,877*l.*; in the Punjaub a surplus of 197,270*l.*; in Madras a surplus of 499,775*l.*; and in Bombay a surplus of 20,906*l.* In the year 1852–53 the income was 26,938,005*l.* and the expenditure 23,816,260*l.*, leaving a surplus of 3,121,745*l.* In Bengal there was a deficit of 1,279,978*l.*; in the North-Western Provinces a surplus of 3,754,121*l.*; in the Punjaub a surplus of 301,607*l.*; in Madras a surplus of 458,958*l.*; and in Bombay a deficit of 112,963*l.* In the year 1853–54 the total income was 26,510,185*l.* and the expenditure 25,292,013*l.*, showing a net surplus of 1,218,172*l.* In Bengal there was a deficit of 2,111,539*l.*; in the North-Western Provinces a surplus of 3,702,814*l.*; in the Punjaub a surplus of 191,620*l.*; in Madras a deficit of 223,821*l.*; and in Bombay a deficit of 340,902*l.* In the year 1854–55 the income was 27,312,235*l.* and the expenditure 26,007,864*l.*, showing a surplus of 1,304,371*l.* In Bengal there was a deficit of 1,900,441*l.*; in the North-Western Provinces a surplus of 3,751,864*l.*; in the Punjaub a deficit of 119,384*l.*; in Madras a deficit of 460,332*l.*; and in Bombay a surplus of 32,664*l.* In the year 1856–57 the income was 28,891,299*l.* and the expenditure 26,599,461*l.*, showing a surplus of 2,291,838*l.* In Bengal there was a deficit of 702,291*l.*; in the North-Western Provinces a surplus of

3,493,640*l.*; in the Punjaub a deficit of 105,675*l.*; in Madras a deficit of 234,224*l.*; and in Bombay a deficit of 159,612*l.* Deducting, however, the charges in England—in the year 1847–48 there was a deficit of 1,911,986*l.*; in 1848–49 a deficit of 1,473,225*l.*; in 1849–50 a surplus of 354,187*l.*; in 1850–51 a surplus of 415,443*l.*; in 1851–52 a surplus of 531,265*l.*; in 1852–53 a surplus of 424,257*l.*; in 1853–54 a deficit of 2,044,117*l.*; in 1854–55 a deficit of 1,707,364*l.*; and in 1855–56 a deficit of 972,791*l.* The amount of debt on the 30th April, 1847, was 41,798,087*l.*, and on the 30th April, 1856, 50,483,369*l.*

No. CXXXVII.—EAST INDIA (REVENUES).

Account of the Total Annual Expense of the Military Force under each Presidency in each Year from 1850–51, according to the Annual Military Statements received from India. (Mr. Henry Baillie.) 13th April, 1858. (201—XII.)

In the year 1855–56, the total annual expense of the military force was as follows :—Royal troops, Bengal, 500,739*l.*; Madras, 89,156*l.*, and Bombay, 154,733*l.*: total, 744,628*l.* Company's troops, Engineers and Sappers, Bengal, 27,805*l.*; Madras, 25,446*l.*, and Bombay, 11,448*l.*: total, 64,699*l.* Artillery, Bengal, 315,538*l.*; Madras, 148,920*l.*, and Bombay, 119,177*l.*: total, 583,635*l.* Native cavalry, Bengal, 849,478*l.*; Madras, 156,030*l.*; and Bombay, 357,740*l.*: total, 1,363,248*l.* Infantry, Bengal, 2,195,039*l.*; Madras, 938,218*l.*, and Bombay, 612,600*l.*: total, 3,745,857*l.* Veterans, Bengal, 49,683*l.*; Madras, 58,670*l.*; and Bombay, 16,525*l.*: total, 124,878*l.* Medical Department, Bengal, 56,571*l.*; Madras, 63,560*l.*; and Bombay, 36,931*l.* Ordnance, Bengal, 81,733*l.*; Madras, 55,543*l.*; and Bombay, 54,545*l.*: total, 191,821*l.* Commissariat, Bengal, 941,345*l.*; Madras, 552,172*l.*; and Bombay, 231,989*l.*: total, 1,725,506*l.* Staff, Bengal, 141,995*l.*; Madras, 123,697*l.*; Bombay, 108,027*l.*: total, 373,719*l.* Military charges, Bengal, 878,604*l.*; Madras, 589,596*l.*; and Bombay, 430,959*l.*: total, 1,899,159*l.* Grand total, Bengal, 6,038,530*l.*; Madras, 2,801,008*l.*; Bombay, 2,134,614*l.*: total, 10,974,212*l.*

FINANCE ACCOUNTS.

The Finance Accounts of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland for the financial Year 1857-8, ended 31st March, 1858. (358.)

THE cash account comprises the whole of the financial operations of the Lords Commissioners of Her Majesty's Treasury in connection with the income and expenditure of the United Kingdom between the 1st April, 1857, and the 31st March, 1858. The receipts included—balance in the Exchequer, 8,668,370*l.* 14*s.* 7*d.*; total income, 67,881,513*l.* 3*s.* 3*d.*; repayment of advances, 1,677,094*l.* 3*s.* 3*d.*; supply raised by renewal of securities on Exchequer Bills, 20,921,900*l.*; temporary advances received, 2,209,181*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.*; total, 101,358,059*l.* 15*s.* 7*d.* The payments included—ordinary expenditure, 68,128,859*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.*; redemption of Exchequer Bonds and Sinking Fund on loan, 2,250,000*l.*; advances by way of loan, 1,087,567*l.* 16*s.* 1*d.*; redemption of funded debt, 25,248*l.* 19*s.* 2*d.*; redemption of unfunded debt, 20,999,400*l.*; temporary advances repaid, 2,209,181*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.*; balances in the Exchequer, 31st March, 1858, 6,657,802*l.* 4*s.* 2*d.*: total, 101,358,059*l.* 15*s.* 7*d.* The gross receipt for the year ended 31st March, 1858, in Great Britain was 63,057,397*l.* 3*s.* 6*d.*; in Ireland, 6,782,123*l.* 18*s.* 0½*d.*: total, 69,839,521*l.* 1*s.* 6½*d.* The payments into the Exchequer amounted to 67,881,513*l.* 3*s.* 3*d.* This latter amount was made up of the following items:—Customs, 23,109,104*l.* 15*s.* 9*d.*; excise, 17,825,000*l.*; stamps, 7,415,719*l.* 0*s.* 2*d.*; land and assessed taxes, 3,152,033*l.* 7*s.* 4*d.*; property-tax, 11,586,114*l.* 10*s.* 4*d.*; post-office, 2,292,000*l.*; crown lands, 276,654*l.* 4*s.* 1*d.*; other items, 1,596,887*l.* 5*s.* 7*d.*: total, 67,881,513*l.* 3*s.* 3*d.*

The expenditure amounted to 70,378,859*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.*—namely, debt, 28,627,103*l.* 2*s.* 4*d.*; Consolidated Fund, 2,919,198*l.* 4*s.* 1*d.*; army, 12,915,156*l.* 15*s.* 6*d.*; navy, 10,590,000*l.*; Persian expedition, 900,000*l.*; expenses of the late war with China, 590,693*l.*; civil services, 7,227,719*l.* 19*s.* 7*d.*; Exchequer Bonds redeemed, 2,000,000*l.*; Sinking Fund on loan of 5,000,000*l.*, 250,000*l.*: total, 70,378,859*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.* Excess of expenditure over income, 2,497,345*l.* 18*s.* 5*d.* The heads of charge on the Consolidated Fund are—Interest of the Debt, Sinking Fund, Interest of Unfunded Debt, Civil List, Annuities and Pensions, Salaries and Allowances, Diplomatic Salaries and Pensions, Courts of Justice, Redemption of Sound Dues, and Advances for purchase of Bullion, Local Works, &c. The annuities and pensions include 135,000*l.* to the royal family, 36,000*l.* pensions for naval and military services, 36,000*l.* pensions for civil services, 50,000*l.* pensions for judicial services. On the 31st March, 1858, the total unredeemed funded debt amounted to 779,225,495*l.* 3*s.* 10*d.*, bearing a charge of 27,477,443*l.* 17*s.* 5½*d.*, of which 735,055,059*l.* 4*s.* 11*d.* was the debt of Great Britain, and 44,170,435*l.* 18*s.* 11*d.* the debt of Ireland. The total amount of unfunded debt outstanding on the 31st March, 1858, was—Exchequer Bills, 20,911,500*l.*; Exchequer Bonds, 5,000,000*l.*

The trade of the United Kingdom in the year ended 31st December, 1857, was as follows:—Value of imports into the United Kingdom, calculated at the official rates of valuation, 136,215,849*l*. Value of exports, calculated at the official rates, produce and manufacture of the United Kingdom, 255,215,849*l*.; foreign and colonial merchandise, 30,797,818*l*.: total exports, 286,194,531*l*. Value of the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom exported therefrom, according to the real or declared value thereof, 122,066,107*l*. In the year ended 31st December, 1857, there were built 2,045 vessels, 423,477 tons; and on the 31st December, 1858, there were registered in the British Empire, 37,614 vessels, 5,519,154 tons, 284,135 men. In the year ending 31st December, 1857, there were entered inward 27,596 vessels, 6,853,705 tons, British and Irish vessels, and 21,942 vessels, 4,621,494 tons, foreign vessels; and cleared outwards, 27,113 vessels, 6,840,402 tons, British and Irish vessels, and 23,469 vessels, 4,863,191 tons, foreign vessels.

CONTRACTS (PUBLIC DEPARTMENTS).

First, Second, Third, Fourth, and Fifth Reports from the Select Committee appointed to inquire into the principle adopted for making Contracts for the Public Departments, and the effect which the present system has upon the Expenditure of Public Money. (328.)

THE Committee was constituted on the 19th February, 1858, and on the 19th March the Committee was nominated of Colonel Boldero, Mr. Baring, General Codrington, Viscount Duncan, Colonel Gilpin, Lord Claud Hamilton, Mr. Jackson, Mr. Liddell, Lord Lovaine, Mr. Monsell, Sir Charles Napier, Mr. Newdegate, Lord Clarence Paget, Mr. Westhead, and Sir John Ramsden. Mr. Roebuck and Colonel Knox were afterwards added to the Committee. Mr. Liddell was discharged from further attendance, and Mr. Joseph Ewart added thereto.

On the 4th June, the Committee reported as follows:—"That the character which the inquiry has assumed renders it desirable that a portion of the subject should also be examined into by a royal commission, and they have therefore directed their chairman to move the House that an humble address be presented to her Majesty, praying that she will be graciously pleased to appoint a royal commission to inquire into the system upon which the books and stock have been respectively kept at Weedon, as well as the general mode in which the business of the establishment at Weedon has been conducted, the result of such mode of conducting the business, and the present state of the book and stock of stores."

On the 20th June, the Committee reported that they had taken evidence on the matters to them referred, and had agreed to report the same to the House.

On the 13th July, the Committee made their fourth report, as follows:—

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Referring to the fourth paragraph of the report of the Select Committee last year, in which it was reported that, "The clothing of the army was considered by them as the first branch of their investigation; but circumstances arose in the course of their proceedings which induced them to commence at once an inquiry into the present contract for supplying 15,000 marines with clothing, which inquiry is still incomplete;" your Committee report: The present system of clothing the marines has been in existence twenty-five years; the patterns are fixed by the Board of Admiralty; the details of the execution of the contract are carried out by the Comptroller of Victualling, and the details with regard to patterns and inspection are conducted exclusively by military officers.

A complaint has been made on the part of the contractor, of the manner in which this system has worked in regard to his contract, which has recently terminated, and your Committee think it right to describe the circumstances which occurred in the course of its completion. The Board of Admiralty enter into contracts for clothing in materials, which are made up at the divisional head-quarters for the use of the marines at home, and for ready-made clothing, which is issued to the marines afloat. Advertisements for tenders are inserted in the newspapers; persons wishing to tender are invited to inspect the patterns, specifications, and terms of the contract, and the lowest tender is always accepted, unless the person who makes it is evidently not to be relied upon. The contractor agrees, when he signs the contract, to certain conditions. He engages to supply within a given time such articles as may be demanded of him,—to remove them if not approved by the examining officers,—and, in cases of rejection or of failure to deliver goods within the stipulated time, he binds himself to pay certain fines, as well as the extra cost of the articles which the Board of Admiralty are empowered to purchase in order to supply the place of those which have been rejected or not delivered in time. The supply under the contract in question was an exceptional case, arising from the sudden change of the quality of the cloth (for army and marines); and the manufacturers, not having a store on hand, had nothing to fall back upon.

Your Committee find that, on the 28th November, 1856, Messrs. Hebbert and Co. entered into a contract with the Lords of the Admiralty for supplying the clothing to the marines; such supplies to be delivered within two months after requisition, in the usual course. That they had very large requisitions made upon them within fourteen days after the acceptance of their contract. That, on the 16th January, 1857, Messrs. Hebbert and Co. applied for an extension of twenty-one days' time, on the ground that the whole supply was of a new pattern and quality, that they had so short a time to prepare for the large requisitions made upon them, and that the changeable weather rendered the process of dyeing difficult to work with any degree of certainty as to time. This application was refused, because the clothing was urgently required; but they were informed that "any circumstance as to non-delivery would be considered after the articles had been received." It has also been subsequently stated in evidence by Mr. Bischoff, that Messrs. Hebbert had two months' back-supply to furnish, which under ordinary circumstance would have been supplied by requisitions upon their predecessors in October.

That a delivery of clothing was made in February, 1857, and a very large proportion was rejected, notice of which rejection was sent to Messrs. Hebbert and Co. on the 18th February by the Comptroller of Victualling, who

informed them that steps would be taken to obtain the supplies from other parties. To which they replied on the 19th, requesting a copy of the report of the Board of Officers, as to the cause of rejection. No reply was made to Messrs. Hebbert and Co., and they again wrote to the Comptroller on the 26th February, pressing for the information, and offering to replace any rejection, along with the remainder of the supply short delivered on the 10th February. On the 27th they were furnished with a copy of the report, and acquainted, that the penalties they had incurred would be inflicted, and that measures had been taken for procuring elsewhere the articles required in lieu of those which had been rejected under their contract.

On the 28th February, Messrs. Hebbert and Co. replied, begging that the measures stated to have been taken might be delayed pending an answer to their petition to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty. On the 3rd March, Messrs. Hebbert and Co. presented the petition, accompanied by certificates from manufacturers as to the quality of the cloths, submitting that the articles could not be procured elsewhere, as they had to be specially manufactured for the purpose, and stating that they were prepared "immediately to deliver and make good the whole supply." The Board of Admiralty, on the representation of Admiral Milne, allowed them to send in samples; and he stated in his evidence that if these had been approved, the indulgence would have been extended. On this inspection, conducted on the same system as the first, some rejections were made, and the result not being deemed satisfactory by the Board of Admiralty, steps were taken to purchase the articles from another contractor. The price paid for them was higher than Messrs. Hebbert's contract price, and the excess was charged against them, in accordance with the terms of their contract. Further requisitions were made on Messrs. Hebbert and Co., and they continued to make further deliveries with very nearly the same results. In the month of April fines were levied upon Messrs. Hebbert and Co., to the extent of 3,451*l.* 12*s.* 4*d.*, and the amount stopped out of money due for goods which had passed; of this sum, 580*l.* 17*s.* 2*d.* is made up of penalties, and the remainder of the excess cost of purchases. These fines were in addition to the loss which they appear to have sustained by large quantities of material not in general use being thrown on their hands.

A voluminous correspondence was laid before the Committee, and many witnesses were examined; cloth merchants and manufacturers of long standing, makers of similar materials for the army for several years, and then employed by Messrs. Hebbert and Co., gave their decided opinions that their supplies to Messrs. Hebbert and Co. were fully equal to the patterns in quality; while the inspecting officers adhered to their former decision, and stated that they had acted up to their instructions. A letter written by the Comptroller of Victualling, arising out of another contract, and dated subsequently to the one referred to, appears to have been understood by the inspecting officers in a sense which the superintending Lord of the Victualling Department declares was not the intention of the Admiralty, viz., that in every case when any portion, however small, of a supply was inferior to the pattern, the whole of the supply of that article was to be rejected; he also stated that instructions have since been issued, explaining that the officers are competent to use their own discretion in such cases. However, the Board acted up to the opinion they had formed. The lieutenant and quartermaster stated: "They had written instructions to

reject the whole supply, if part only is found inferior." He was not aware of any printed instructions to guide the Committee as to its duties; but he stated that he had inquired from his superior officer what his instructions were, and had acted up to them, and that he had read the contract. The president also stated: "I am not permitted to make a selection of the contractor's goods, and say whether they are equal to the pattern or not; the whole supply is to be the same; and, if I find one bale is bad, according to the present system, I reject the whole." Therefore your Committee are of opinion that the letter of instruction written by the Comptroller of Victualling subsequent to the date of the contract was unfair and arbitrary to the contractors, although not written with reference to their contract. Since the evidence was given in 1857, Messrs. Hebbert and Co. have not had any difficulty in getting their goods passed; and it is in evidence in the present session that almost all the made-up tunics which were rejected in the spring of last year, and on which the fines were levied, have since been passed as portions of other deliveries. A great deal of evidence was also adduced by three persons in the employment of the contractors, in support of their belief that the goods had not been fairly examined, but that the Board of Officers had been misled by the representations of Sergeant Smith, leading man of the marine store.

Sergeant Smith was suspended from his duties in consequence of a charge of bribery which was brought against him, and he has since resigned. The Board of Officers, however, on different occasions, distinctly state officially in their reports, that the cloths supplied by Messrs. Hebbert "were not in any way equal to the sealed patterns; that they had judged most impartially," and that "no unnecessary rejection had taken place." In conclusion, your Committee are of opinion, from the general tenor of the evidence, that the goods supplied by Messrs. Hebbert and Co., in the months of February, March, and April, 1857, were rejected with undue severity.

On the 16th July the Committee reported that they had received further evidence on the system of Government contracts, which they reported to the House, recommending the continuation of the inquiry in the next Session of Parliament.

The following witnesses were examined:—Rear-Admiral Alexander Milne, Charles Bischoff, Colonel Stransham, Mr. John Breaks, Thomas Howell, James Charles Grey, George Gunn Munro; William Essex, currier; James Sutton Elliott, principal military storekeeper, Weldon; Noah Watson, Weedon; John Doyle, artist; James Dowie, bootmaker; George Pays, late portmanteau maker; William Goslett, secretary to the Gresham House Association; John Mills, japanner of leather; John Garrard, cutter of accoutrements; William Green, James Moore, George Dalhousie Ramsay, Captain Thomas Smith, Robert Taylor, William Shaw, Robert S. Garden, Moses Levy, Arthur Crocker, Sir Benjamin Hawes, Josiah Oastler, Robert Tiffin, Henry Norte, and Samuel Isaac, Captain James Crawford Caffin, and Edmund King.

The following items are gathered from the evidence:—

Accoutrements.—Mr. Essex alluded to the arbitrary mode of rejecting goods. He contracted for 9,000 revolver cases, pouches, and bolts. Of a

delivery of 3,000, 1,200 were rejected, and of the next delivery 400. In another contract for 500 sets of accoutrements for cavalry, nearly the whole were rejected for trifling causes. One cause of rejection of the sword-knots was that there were six stitches to the inch instead of five. Mr. Crocker remarked that the stores sold at the Tower are generally new, although in some few cases they were of obsolete patterns; but this was accounted for by Mr. Eaton on the plea of a want of store room. From the 1st January, 1856, to the 31st December, 1857, such accoutrements as were obsolete and otherwise unserviceable, realized an amount of 5,321*l*.

Army Clothing (System of Supply).—Mr. Essex advocated the obtaining of supplies of army clothing through the colonels, the only objection to that system being now abolished, viz. the profit accruing to the colonels. The Government or the Board should fix the price, and the minimum quality and quantity, but he would leave the obtaining of the supply in the hands of the general officer, the colonel of the regiment. The motives and objects connected with the change in providing clothes for the army are patent to the world. It was thought objectionable that colonels should be in immediate contact with tradesmen and contractors, and there was not that uniformity of system prevailing which was desirable. It was therefore thought preferable that the clothing colonels should receive remuneration direct in the shape of payment in lieu of off-reckonings, and that the Government should take all dealings with contractors off their hands. Economy and quality were the objects in view. Again, the weak point of the system was that no improvement of the quality of the clothing could be effected without increasing the off-reckonings of the colonels, which would have been unpopular. The colonels would have asked for an increase of the off-reckonings in proportion to the percentage by which the patterns were increased in value; consequently the pattern was never improved. The system of separate contracts has proved very successful. The immense demands for clothing within the last few years have been wonderfully well met. Clothing must be provided at Weedon for 220,000 men, besides the militia, embodied and disembodied. But it was the opinion of Mr. Isaacs, that under the present system, the Government are not the sufferers, because they pay no compensation to the regiments; they are only the sufferers in character, not in pocket, the men are the sufferers. Mr. Bischoff was of opinion that the best protection to Government and the public is the test of wear, and as used to be the system, the responsibility of the contractor, or the general officers through whom the supplies might be obtained. Mr. Bischoff on the part of Messrs. Hebbert and Co. gave in a memorandum comprising the following plan for the best mode of providing army clothing:—

1. That there be a fixed annual scale adopted for providing the clothing, accoutrements, and appointments of the respective regiments.
2. That each colonel of a regiment be required to appoint his regimental tradesmen, or empower his agents to do so, which appointment be approved

by the Secretary of State for War; such approval being intended as security to the tradesmen for the due discharge of their just demands upon the public, and to exonerate the colonel from all pecuniary responsibility in the appointment.

3. That in the case of a new levy, or of an augmentation either of men or horses to an existing corps of cavalry or infantry, additional fixed sums to those prescribed in Art. No. 1, be allowed for accoutrements and appointments required for such new levy or augmentation. But if the establishment of a corps of cavalry or infantry be augmented again within the following three years, no further allowance be made for accoutrements or appointments for so much of the augmentation as may be equal to the previous reduction.

4. That patterns of clothing for every corps be exhibited at the War Office by the clothier appointed by the colonel, in order to have them approved and sealed by an officer appointed by the Commander-in-Chief, at least two months before the fixed dates in Art. No. 5. The clothing, when completed, to be submitted to the officers appointed by the Commander-in-Chief to inspect army clothing, and compare the several articles with the sealed patterns; and if the same be found strictly conformable thereto, the said officer to grant two certificates of the view and approval of the said clothing; one to be given to the clothier for transmission with the clothing to the head-quarters of the corps, and the other to the Secretary of State for War, as a voucher for passing the tradesmen's accounts. The officers appointed to inspect army clothing to follow such further instructions as he may receive from the Commander-in-Chief and the Secretary of State for War.

5. That the clothing of corps be submitted to, and completely examined by, the officer appointed to inspect it, so as to be packed and despatched to the several stations by the clothier at fixed periods.

6. That patterns sealed by the officer appointed by the Commander-in-Chief, be sent with the clothing to the head-quarters of each corps; and when received, the commanding officer present, and the two officers next in seniority, immediately inspect and compare the clothing, and cause to be drawn out an accurate return of the quantity, quality, and condition, and of the conformity or non-conformity thereof to the sealed patterns; which return be entered in the regimental books for the inspection of the officer or officers who may from time to time inspect or review the corps. A duplicate of this return be transmitted by the commanding officer to the Adjutant-General, and another to the Secretary of State for War.

Boots.—The boots are examined separately, and several are cut up in order to test the materials and the workmanship. Out of 60,000 pairs of boots returned from the Crimea, only 6,000 were pronounced fully equal to the Weedon standard, and the remainder were sold at an average of about 5s. 5½d. per pair. But although a great number of boots were rejected, no corrupt motives were alleged against the inspectors or viewers. Doubts were rather suggested as to their competency. In two years, 74,000 pairs of boots were sold at the Tower; 20,000 of these had been sent from Weedon, and about 50,000 had been returned from the Crimea. The boots thus sold at 5s. 5½d. cost the Government 10s. 6d. or 11s. Some of the

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boots sold at the Tower for 5s. 6d. ; a pair have been subsequently purchased by the quartermaster, as necessaries, at about 12s. a pair.

Mr. Shaw and Mr. Dowie stated that they bought boots from a Mr. Levy, who had purchased 20,000 pairs at a low price ; these boots had all been passed at Weedon, but were subsequently thrown upon the market, though of excellent quality. Sir B. Hawes justified the sale of these boots on account of the expense of warehouse-room to keep them, and because the War Office had decided that they should not be issued again to the army. Mr. Levy said that the boots were made by different makers, but were all new and of good quality. They were packed in casks, and some of the casks had never been opened. The price of boots has been raised lately, and was about 11s. a pair. The contracts lately made for boots were at the price of 9s. 10d. a pair ; but the boots now supplied are of a very superior quality. The stock of boots in store at Weedon was 100,000 pairs. Boots will keep a considerable time without depreciation, if properly cared for : they should not be exposed to the atmosphere, and they should be occasionally turned over and slightly greased. There are 36 firms contracting for boots ; they are all manufacturers. The recent contracts for boots have been made from the office lists ; tenders were not open to the general public.

Bribery.—In the opinion of Mr. Bischoff the subordinate officials in the public departments are subject to bribery. Mr. Essex said there was a general opinion in the trade that the Government inspectors were open to bribery. Mr. Garden said that the men at the Tower to whom he gave money, said there was no getting things passed unless money was given. Other witnesses affirmed that though they had often heard of bribery at Weedon, they had never seen any such. Sir B. Hawes did not believe there was any bribery or corruption in the War Department as a whole. As regards the bribery of some few subordinates, the contractors who bribed them were most to blame. Several instances of bribes were related to the Committee.

Inspection.—Since the former sitting of the Committee there was an alteration in the constitution of the inspecting board ; the Admiralty having ordered the Deputy Adjutant-General to select other officers for the purpose of inspecting the clothing. The Admiralty thought it was expedient to place on the survey of the marine clothing, which was originally left solely in the marine officers' hands, the two surveying officers of Deptford victualling yard. The officers thus added have had practical experience in the survey of navy clothing. At the Tower, the inspectors and overseers are all chosen from the trade. The viewers are mostly men who have worked at the craft ; the viewer of tools has worked at the anvil, or is a Sheffield man, as the case may be. In Mr. Elliott's opinion a more competent and practical staff of viewers and inspectors could not be found than at the Tower. The superintendent of inspectors is responsible that his staff is sufficient, and that the inspectors and viewers act according to the regulations laid down for their guidance ; that is, to compare the supply

with the pattern. The superintendent also communicates with the contractors in reference to the quality of their stores. If the contractor demurs to the decision of the inspector, he appeals to the superintendent, and states his case; and with the superintendent and inspector he goes to the storehouse, sees the stores which have been rejected, and in most cases is satisfied that the inspection is right. Generally a conversation with practical men elucidates the facts, and both parties are satisfied that the result is such as it should have been. If the contractor is dissatisfied, he has the power of appealing to the director of stores, or the director of contracts. The appeal should first be made to the director of stores. Mr. Elliott recommended an increase in the salaries of the inspectors, who are now much underpaid. Mr. Pays thought it wrong that a person through whose hands goods to the value of thousands pass should be paid at the rate of 30*s.* per week. The viewers also are underpaid. There are three classes of viewers; the first-class have two guineas a week, the second-class 36*s.* a week, and the third-class 30*s.* a week. The inspectors at the Tower get now 250*l.* a year, but those at Weedon get only 100*l.*

Weedon Establishment.—In May, 1858, there were at Weedon:—One principal military storekeeper—salary, 850*l.*; three assistant military storekeepers—salary, two 260*l.*, and one 300*l.*; clerks—six first-class, 240*l.* to 180*l.*; eight second-class, 160*l.* to 80*l.*; and twenty-three temporary, 100*l.*; inspectors—one first-class, 310*l.*; one second-class, 210*l.*; and five third-class, 100*l.*; foremen—six first-class, 7*s.* a-day; one second-class, 5*s.*; two third-class, 4*s.* 6*d.*; viewers—two first-class, 7*s.*; fifteen second-class, 6*s.*; fifteen third-class, 5*s.*; and one fourth-class, 3*s.* 8*d.*; 163 labourers at 2*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* per day; artificers—two first-class, 4*s.* 6*d.*; two second-class, 4*s.*; police—one sergeant, 2*s.* 4*d.*, and four men, 1*s.* 8*d.* per day; one office-keeper, 3*s.* 6*d.*; one gate-keeper, 2*s.* 6*d.*; one messenger, 2*s.* 6*d.* per day.

Cost of Equipment.—The fixed annual sum required to equip a regiment of infantry with new pattern clothing, biennial supply of caps, decennial supply of accoutrements, triennial supply of great-coats, is as follows:—Staff sergeant, 7*l.* 7*s.*; company's sergeants, 3*l.* 14*s.* 3*d.*; drummers or buglers, 3*l.* 1*s.* 3*d.*; musicians, 3*l.* 3*s.* 3*d.*; corporals, 2*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.*; rank and file, 2*l.* 14*s.* 1*d.*; total for a regiment, 1,031 all ranks, 2,878*l.* 13*s.* 5*d.*; average per man, all ranks, 2*l.* 15*s.* 10*d.*

ACCOUNTS RELATING TO TRADE AND NAVIGATION.

(Year ended 31st December, 1858.) (23.—XII.)

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

AN ACCOUNT of the IMPORTS and CONSUMPTION of the PRINCIPAL ARTICLES of FOREIGN and COLONIAL MERCHANDISE, in the YEAR ended 31st of DECEMBER, 1858.

ARTICLES.	Imports.	Entered for Home Consumption.	ARTICLES.	Imports.	Entered for Home Consumption.
Animals, Living . . . number	285,048	Free.	Mahogany . . . tons	22,481	Free.
Ashes cwt.	150,432	"	Metals :—		
Bark "	249,838	"	Copper Ore and Regulus . . . "	97,099	"
Bones tons	85,393	"	Copper cwt.	128,360	"
Brimstone cwt.	1,166,476	"	Iron, in Bars, unwrought . . . tons	25,464	"
Bristles lbs.	2,055,596	"	Steel, Unwrought . . . "	1,788	"
Caoutchouc cwt.	25,125	"	Lead, Pig and Sheet . . . "	14,139	"
Clocks and Watches :—			Spelter "	22,725	"
Clocks number	247,616	242,180	Tin cwt.	59,115	"
Watches "	99,329	88,710	Oil :—		
Cocoa lbs.	10,238,404	3,071,115	Train, Blubber, and Spermaceti . . . tons	19,445	"
Coffee "	60,697,364	25,238,111	Palm cwt.	778,230	"
Corn :—			Cocoa-Nut "	197,788	"
Wheat qrs.	4,241,719	4,275,435	Olive tons	25,121	"
Barley "	1,661,292	1,672,602	Seed Oil, of all kinds . . . tons	9,222	"
Oats "	1,856,281	1,878,212	Oil Seed Cakes . . . tons	80,629	"
Pease "	167,975	169,484	Potatoes cwt.	1,721,963	"
Beans "	412,031	414,983	Provisions :—		
Indian Corn or Maize . . . "	1,700,825	1,762,220	Bacon and Hams . . . "	196,685	"
Wheatmeal and Flour . . . cwt.	2,856,127	2,890,352	Beef, Salt "	168,496	"
Indian Corn Meal . . . "	4,637	4,720	Pork, Salt "	89,741	"
Cotton, Raw "	9,235,198	Free.	Butter "	390,040	263,050
Cotton Manufactures, not made up . . . value £	508,626	"	Cheese "	264,087	254,960
Cream of Tartar . . . cwt.	17,455	"	Eggs number	134,664,800	134,647,800
Dyes and Dyeing Stuffs :—			Lard cwt.	121,267	Free.
Cochineal "	22,227	"	Quicksilver lbs.	220,722	"
Indigo "	66,198	"	Rice, not in the Husk . . . cwt.	2,692,022	1,761,265
Lacdy "	11,629	"	Saltpetre "	224,218	Free.
Logwood tons	26,189	"	Cubic Nitre "	484,988	"
Madder and Madder Root . . . cwt.	221,560	"	Seeds :—		
Garancine "	42,700	"	Clover "	150,377	"
Shumac tons	11,904	"	Flaxseed & Linseed . . . qrs.	1,017,844	"
Terra Japonica "	8,957	"	Rape "	217,169	"
Cutch "	2,248	"	Silk :—		
Valonia "	19,572	"	Raw lbs.	6,277,576	"
Elephants' Teeth . . . cwt.	11,975	"	Waste, Knubs, and Huaks . . . cwt.	16,765	"
Flax and Tow, or Codilla of Flax "	1,283,905	"	Thrown lbs.	268,269	"
Fruit :—			Silk Manufactures of Europe :—		
Currants "	582,280	284,531	Broad Stuffs :—Silk or Satin "	277,163	270,914
Lemons & Oranges . . . bushels	973,779	984,901	Broad Stuffs: Gauze, Crape, and Velvet . . . "	22,762	21,681
Raisins cwt.	257,485	258,807	Ribbons, of all kinds . . . "	262,619	276,562
Guano tons	253,541	Free.	Plush for making Hats "	124,106	122,728
Hair :—			Silk Manufactures of India pieces	207,081	63,012
Goats' Hair or Wool Manufactures of Hair value £	229,521	22,559	Spices :—		
Hemp :—			Cassia Ligna lbs.	819,198	126,242
Hemp and Tow, or Codilla of Hemp . . . cwt.	882,110	Free.	Cinnamon "	651,056	56,280
Jute "	756,250	"	Cloves "	1,822,669	202,289
Hides, Untanned :—			Ginger cwt.	29,944	15,504
Dry "	282,226	"	Nutmegs lbs.	421,784	222,822
Wet "	446,062	"	Pepper "	12,257,509	4,020,022
Hides, Tanned, Tawed, Carried, or Dressed (except Russia Hides) . . . lbs.	3,885,124	"	Pimento cwt.	42,210	5,185
Hops cwt.	12,000	16,587	Spirits :—		
Leather Manufactures :—			Rum proof gal.	7,212,642	3,427,565
Boots, Shoes, &c. pairs	165,466	145,688	Brandy "	1,064,661	1,106,106
Root Fronts "	609,596	597,763	Geneva "	120,172	26,228
Gloves "	2,627,178	2,210,848			

ARTICLES.	Imports.	Entered for Home Consumption.	ARTICLES.	Imports.	Entered for Home Consumption.
Sugar, Unrefined :—			Timber and Wood—cont.		
1st Quality (equal to White Clayed) cwt.	175,911	102,771	Staves, not exceeding 72 inches long . . . loads	105,236	Free.
2nd Quality (not equal to White, but equal to Brown Clayed) . "	4,154,309	3,941,084	Timber or Wood, not Sawn . . . "	971,826	970,478
3rd Quality (not equal to Brown Clayed) . . . "	4,580,593	4,703,079	Tobacco :—		
—Refined, and Sugar-Candy . . . "	386,839	257,339	Stemmed . . . lbs.	20,004,966	14,763,335
—Cane Juice . . . "	56,418	57,361	Unstemmed . . . "	39,638,824	19,087,576
—Molasses . . . "	775,657	819,226	Manufactured, and Snuff . . . "	2,573,925	259,939
Tallow lbs.	1,235,789	1,225,181	Turpentine, Common . cwt.	246,456	Free.
Tar lbs.	10,107	Free.	Wine :—		
Tea lbs.	75,432,578	73,217,483	Red galls.	1,981,325	2,731,791
Timber and Wood :—			White lbs.	3,810,231	2,965,255
Deals, Battens, Boards, or other Timber, or Wood Sawn or Split . loads	1,355,430	1,312,450	Wool, Sheep and Lambs' — Alpaca and the Llama Tribe . . . "	124,528,540	Free.
			Woolen Manufactures :—		
			Manufactures not made up . . . value £	817,112	"
			Shawls, Scarfs, and Handkerchiefs . lbs.	16,422	16,115
			Yeast, dried . . . cwt.	82,425	Free.

AN ACCOUNT of the COMPUTED REAL VALUE of the PRINCIPAL ARTICLES of FOREIGN and COLONIAL MERCHANDISE IMPORTED in the TWELVE MONTHS ended 31st DECEMBER, 1858.

Coffee, Raw	£1,742,147	Oil :—	
Corn :—		Train	£921,259
Wheat	9,050,467	Palm	1,513,109
Barley	2,136,725	Olive	1,201,561
Oats	1,965,915	Oil Seed Cakes	665,292
Pease	305,777	Provisions :—	
Beans	701,747	Bacon	446,360
Indian Corn or Maize	2,642,704	Butter	1,842,266
Wheatmeal and Flour	3,189,636	Cheese	850,397
Cotton, Raw	30,106,968	Rice, not in the Husk	1,652,505
Cotton Manufactures not made up	508,636	Saltpetre	645,025
Cubic Nitre.—(See Saltpetre.)		Cubic Nitre	386,893
Flax (dressed and undressed), and Tow or Codilla of Flax	3,020,879	Seeds, Flax and Linseed	2,710,078
Fruit :—		Silk :—	
Currants	765,195	Raw	5,661,387
Raisins	524,847	Thrown	449,189
Guano	4,084,170	Spirits :—	
Hemp :—		Rum	836,604
Hemp (dressed & undressed), and Tow or Codilla of Hemp	1,232,744	Brandy	398,989
Jute and other vegetable substances of the nature of Hemp	640,655	Geneva	14,667
Hides, Untanned :—		Sugar, Unrefined :—	
Dry	991,949	1st Quality (equal to White Clayed)	287,584
Wet	1,169,712	2nd Quality (not equal to White, but equal to Brown Clayed)	6,254,630
Tanned, &c.	318,229	3rd Quality (not equal to Brown Clayed)	5,780,191
Indigo	2,292,257	Sugar Refined & Sugar Candy	753,681
Metals :—		Molasses	391,787
Copper Ore and Regulus	2,144,802	Tallow	3,042,381
Iron	320,268	Tea	5,206,621
Lead, Pig and Sheet	294,265	Timber and Wood :—	
Spelter	598,933	Deals, Battens, and Boards	3,187,200
Tin	351,923	Timber or Wood not sawn or split	2,776,808

Tobacco:—		Wool:—	
Stemmed	£831,672	Sheep and Lambs'	£3,652,042
Unstemmed	1,398,471	Alpaca and the Llama Tribe	320,176
Manufactured, and Cigars	300,420	Woollen Manufactures not made up	817,112
Wine:—		Total	
Red	666,087	£133,338,461	
White	1,374,467		

AN ACCOUNT of the EXPORTS of the PRINCIPAL ARTICLES of FOREIGN and COLONIAL MERCHANDISE in the YEAR ended 31st DECEMBER, 1858.

Cheese	cwts.	7,088	Silk:—		
Cocoa	lbs.	3,568,642	Raw	lbs.	2,314,519
Coffee:—			Waste, Knubs, & Huaks	cwts.	2,429
Of British Possessions	"	18,879,989	Thrown	lbs.	364,680
Foreign	"	9,881,325	Silk Manufactures of Europe:—		
Corn:—			Broad Stuffs—Silk or	lbs.	5,384
Wheat	qrs.	4,855	Satin	lbs.	5,384
Wheatmeal or Flour	cwts.	16,376	Broad Stuffs—Gauze,	"	1,244
Cotton, Raw	"	1,335,790	Crape, and Velvet	"	11,064
Cotton Manufactures, not	"	£104,497	Ribbons, of all kinds	"	400
made up	value	£104,497	Plush for making Hats	"	227,139
Dyes and Dyeing Stuffs:—			Silk Manufactures of India		
Cochineal	cwts.	14,161	Spices:—		
Indigo	"	49,968	Cassia Ligna	lbs.	457,859
Lac dye	"	3,993	Cinnamon	"	627,596
Logwood	tons	1,072	Cloves	"	1,457,429
Terra Japonica	"	561	Ginger	cwts.	11,605
Cutch	"	413	Nutmegs	lbs.	174,970
Fruit:—			Pepper	"	5,478,475
Currants	cwts.	102,486	Pimento	cwts.	24,035
Raisins	"	88,581	Spirits:—		
Guan	tons	19,632	Rum	proof galls.	2,257,506
Hides, Untanned:—			Brandy	"	671,474
Dry	cwts.	162,247	Geneva	"	72,771
Wet	"	59,810	Sugar:—		
Hops	"	2,963	Unrefined	cwts.	301,462
Leather Manufactures:—			Refined and Candy	"	58,786
Gloves	pairs	436,718	Molasses	"	96,020
Metals:—			Tallow	"	22,397
Copper, Unwrought and	cwts.	46,287	Tea	lbs.	7,249,270
Tin, in Blacks, Ingots,	"	5,970	Tobacco:—		
Bars, or Slabs	"	5,970	Stemmed	"	61,304
Oil:—			Unstemmed	"	9,197,669
Palm	cwts.	174,528	Manufactured, & Snuff	"	1,245,263
Cocoa-nut	"	109,131	Wine:—		
Olive	tuns	586	Red	galls.	920,159
Quicksilver	lbs.	756,802	White	"	1,277,652
Rice, not in the Husk	cwts.	1,199,662	Mixed in Bond	"	124,924
Saltpetre	"	57,767	Wool—Sheep and Lambs':—		
Seed:—			British Possessions	lbs.	22,076,905
Flax and Linseed	qrs.	165,223	Foreign	"	4,510,521
Rape	"	120,174	Alpaca and the Llama	"	114,116
			Tribe	"	114,116
			Woollen Manufactures not	value	£22,982
			made up		

AN ACCOUNT of the EXPORTS of the PRINCIPAL and OTHER ARTICLES of
BRITISH and IRISH PRODUCE and MANUFACTURES, in the YEAR ended
31st DECEMBER, 1858.

ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.	ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.
Apparel and Slops:—		£	Earthenware and Porcelain—cont.		£
To Australia . . . value £	..	1,113,144	Australia . . . value £	..	106,314
Other Countries . . . "	..	832,129	Other Countries . . . "	..	437,377
Beer and Ale:—			Fish, Herrings:—		
To United States . . . barrels	24,406	108,024	To Prussia . . . barrels	170,605	247,009
Brazil . . . "	14,897	64,567	Hanover . . . "	51,913	75,164
British West Indies . . . "	23,654	83,706	Hanse Towns . . . "	10,442	14,558
" East Indies . . . "	217,574	672,784	Other Countries . . . "	105,012	125,649
Australia . . . "	189,794	594,013	Fish, Other Sorts . . . value £	..	114,678
Other Countries . . . "	92,841	328,712	Furniture, Cabinet and		
Books, Printed . . . cwts.	27,206	390,496	Upholstery Wares . . . "	..	258,261
Butter . . . "	112,208	541,360	Glass, Flint . . . cwts.	56,458	175,536
Candles, Stearine . . . lbs.	3,061,761	157,348	Glass, Window . . . "	26,067	41,799
Cheese . . . cwts.	23,457	90,581	Glass, Common Bottles . . . "	542,811	301,188
Coals and Culm:—			Glass, Plate . . . value £	..	52,041
To Russia . . . tons	314,083	187,741	Haberdashery and Millinery:—		
Denmark . . . "	262,404	163,116	To United States . . . value £	..	963,961
France . . . "	409,402	178,984	Channel Islands . . . "	..	111,942
Hanse Towns . . . "	591,408	216,261	British N. America . . . "	..	431,128
France . . . "	1,232,341	567,338	" West Indies . . . "	..	132,778
Spain and Canaries . . . "	231,818	174,586	" Possessions in		
Turkey . . . "	187,430	87,314	South Africa . . . "	..	177,166
United States . . . "	300,707	181,804	" East Indies . . . "	..	161,593
Malta . . . "	118,525	57,975	Australia . . . "	..	803,982
British West Indies . . . "	90,124	49,613	Other Countries . . . "	..	689,991
Other Countries . . . "	2,541,691	1,218,181	Hardware and Cutlery:—		
Cordage and Cables . . . cwts.	88,096	166,366	To Hanse Towns . . . cwts.	29,504	183,428
Cottons: Calicoes, Cam- brics, and Muslins, Fustians, and Mixed Stuffs:—			France . . . "	10,687	96,784
To Hanse Towns . . . yards	52,116,151	999,466	United States . . . "	96,777	664,077
Holland . . . "	30,389,862	548,450	Brazil . . . "	41,667	178,960
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira . . . "	56,234,370	718,662	British N. America . . . "	24,540	131,235
Turkey . . . "	193,597,048	2,779,227	" East Indies . . . "	64,830	287,327
Syria and Palestine . . . "	50,378,486	621,904	Australia . . . "	97,045	419,985
Egypt . . . "	63,970,305	770,078	Other Countries . . . "	296,839	1,329,685
United States . . . "	154,818,124	2,613,588	Leather, Tanned, Un- wrought . . . "	37,430	322,937
Foreign West Indies . . . "	52,843,406	816,456	Leather, Wrought (ex- cept Saddlery and Harness):—		
Brazil . . . "	124,922,434	1,839,425	To British N. America . . . lbs.	301,557	50,399
Buenos Ayres . . . "	26,657,309	440,417	" West Indies . . . "	370,578	71,427
Chili . . . "	31,856,388	414,156	" Possessions in		
Peru . . . "	20,722,558	491,207	South Africa . . . "	399,474	79,212
China and Hong Kong . . . "	128,488,567	1,831,570	Australia . . . "	4,539,518	1,006,797
Java . . . "	27,739,234	532,863	Other Countries . . . "	768,875	158,718
Gibraltar . . . "	29,311,554	416,466	Leather, Saddlery and Harness:—		
British N. America . . . "	27,910,773	450,780	To British West Indies . . . value £	..	21,963
" West Indies . . . "	43,019,274	562,428	" Possessions in		
" East Indies . . . "	791,537,041	9,299,359	South Africa . . . "	..	31,026
Australia . . . "	29,115,064	612,315	" East Indies . . . "	..	69,138
Other Countries . . . "	352,352,519	5,335,996	Australia . . . "	..	136,637
Cotton Lace and Patent			Other Countries . . . "	..	69,329
Net . . . value £	..	895,753	Linens (Cloths of all kinds and Cambrics):—		
Stockings . . . doz. pairs	500,370	160,811	To Hanse Towns . . . yards	6,431,741	225,172
Counterpanes and Small Wares, ex- cept Stockings . . . value £	..	305,404	United States . . . "	44,733,982	1,244,634
Thread for Sewing . . . lbs.	4,574,356	525,581	Mexico . . . "	1,842,360	55,561
Cotton Yarn:—			Cuba . . . "	14,119,613	479,299
To Russia . . . lbs.	5,643,839	317,426	Brazil . . . "	9,296,968	350,122
Sweden . . . "	796,331	37,057	British N. America . . . "	1,896,911	57,228
Hanse Towns . . . "	43,752,938	2,198,439	Australia . . . "	4,619,793	154,845
Holland . . . "	31,937,023	1,751,927	Other Countries . . . "	39,638,380	1,311,878
Belgium . . . "	1,962,191	101,297	Linen, Lace of thread . . . value £	..	2,792
Naples and Sicily . . . "	13,420,717	489,646	Linen Thread . . . lbs.	3,177,251	322,243
Austrian Territories . . . "	5,616,551	206,127	Linen Tapes and small wares . . . value £	..	5,761
Turkey . . . "	10,389,283	256,346	Linen Yarn:—		
British East Indies . . . "	26,889,838	1,974,680	To Hanse Towns . . . lbs.	9,232,383	860,508
Other Countries . . . "	49,447,927	2,141,375	Holland . . . "	3,600,963	165,516
Earthenware and Porcelain:—			Spain and Canaries . . . "	7,250,547	260,256
To United States . . . value £	..	378,700	Other Countries . . . "	11,666,900	652,810
Brazil . . . "	..	92,302	Machinery: Steam Engines:—		
British N. America . . . "	..	54,371	To Russia . . . value £	..	252,627
" East Indies . . . "	..	81,943	Denmark . . . "	..	1,299
			Holland . . . "	..	12,964

ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.	ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.
Machinery: Steam Engines—cont.		£	Tin Plates—cont.		£
To France . . . value £	..	30,896	To United States . . value £	..	844,405
Spain . . . "	..	197,850	British N. America . . "	..	27,595
Sardinia . . . "	..	8,275	Australia . . . "	..	30,401
British N. America . . "	..	15,911	Other Countries . . . "	..	434,509
" East Indies . . . "	..	114,689	Oil, Seed:—		
Australia . . . "	..	87,529	To Prussia . . . galls.	463,206	56,792
Other Countries . . . "	..	375,158	Hanse Towns . . . "	991,213	124,097
Other Sorts:—			Holland . . . "	1,196,182	150,548
To Russia . . . "	..	565,653	United States . . . "	772,050	97,227
Hanse Towns . . . "	..	187,062	Australia . . . "	239,984	40,726
Holland . . . "	..	96,733	Other Countries . . . "	2,850,716	273,289
France . . . "	..	229,746	Painters' Colours . . value £	..	260,822
Spain . . . "	..	109,482	Pickles and Sauces . . "	..	269,928
British East Indies . . "	..	251,605	Plate, Plated Ware, Jewellery, and Watches . . "	..	453,513
Australia . . . "	..	190,013	Salt:—		
Other Countries . . . "	..	947,407	To Russia . . . tons	52,028	29,221
Metals: Iron, Pig:—			Prussia . . . "	38,055	18,509
To Prussia . . . tons	36,505	107,653	United States . . . "	227,196	104,791
Holland . . . "	96,086	302,683	British N. America . . "	86,985	34,734
France . . . "	62,499	194,383	" East Indies . . . "	72,563	41,222
United States . . . "	51,128	149,077	Other Countries . . . "	118,071	54,568
British N. America . . "	9,669	28,327	Silk Manufactures:—		
Other Countries . . . "	104,528	318,995	Stuffs, Handkerchiefs, and Ribbons (of Silk only):—		
Iron, Bar, Bolt, and Rod:—			To Hanse Towns . . lbs.	21,201	25,940
To Hanse Towns . . . "	9,263	81,673	France . . . "	13,376	19,497
Holland . . . "	31,004	171,624	United States . . . "	123,948	123,902
France . . . "	22,581	171,753	British N. America . . "	38,333	37,727
Sardinia . . . "	12,329	99,083	Australia . . . "	100,700	159,602
United States . . . "	85,005	669,753	Other Countries . . . "	193,151	227,021
British N. America . . "	45,742	375,303	Other Articles (of Silk only) entered at value:—		
" East Indies . . . "	140,340	1,141,420	To Hanse Towns . . value £	..	56,447
Australia . . . "	17,845	149,107	United States . . . "	..	131,545
Other Countries . . . "	302,362	2,264,126	Other Countries . . . "	..	128,696
Iron Wire . . . "	10,144	208,444	Silk Manufactures mixed with other Materials . . "	..	373,536
Iron, Cast:—			Silk, Thrown:—		
To Sardinia . . . "	351	3,479	To France . . . lbs.	373,936	373,675
Egypt . . . "	5,119	44,284	Holland . . . "	64,596	72,548
United States . . . "	5,571	41,603	Other Countries . . . "	113,779	117,679
Brazil . . . "	3,684	52,712	Silk, Twist and Yarn:—		
British N. America . . "	4,664	34,155	To France . . . "	289,061	143,226
" East Indies . . . "	17,688	196,049	Other Countries . . . "	154,560	84,406
Australia . . . "	14,930	154,947	Soap:—		
Other Countries . . . "	26,216	292,696	To British N. America . . cwts.	26,475	26,754
Iron, Wrought, of all Sorts:—			" West Indies . . . "	85,789	65,113
To Holland . . . tons	14,976	158,391	Australia . . . "	9,513	18,343
United States . . . "	24,446	297,975	Other Countries . . . "	71,403	99,617
British N. America . . "	16,752	290,395	Soda	1,616,168	812,675
" East Indies . . . "	39,608	576,443	Spirits (British):—		
Australia . . . "	14,008	249,599	To France . . . galls.	31,517	4,521
Other Countries . . . "	119,243	1,689,135	Australia . . . "	459,200	77,287
Iron, Steel, Unwrought:—			Other Countries . . . "	839,530	124,960
To United States . . . "	8,482	313,447	Stationery:—		
Other Countries . . . "	7,865	276,234	To United States . . value £	..	45,211
Copper: Unwrought, in Bricks, Pigs, &c.:—			British N. America . . "	..	40,895
To Belgium . . . cwts.	19,178	104,858	" East Indies . . . "	..	177,882
France . . . "	69,226	350,524	Australia . . . "	..	284,701
British East Indies . . "	4,965	26,069	Other Countries . . . "	..	254,781
Other Countries . . . "	41,349	215,072	Sugar, Refined . . . cwts.	127,216	263,463
Copper, Sheets and Nails, including Mixed or Yellow Metal:—			Wool, Sheep and Lambs:—		
To Hanse Towns . . . "	26,239	130,261	To Hanse Towns . . lbs.	897,146	80,726
Holland . . . "	28,288	141,460	Holland . . . "	318,253	10,619
Belgium . . . "	7,946	43,271	Belgium . . . "	1,126,947	89,789
United States . . . "	16,722	84,019	France . . . "	10,789,841	701,194
Brazil . . . "	6,536	37,205	Other Countries . . . "	412,982	19,225
British East Indies . . "	115,077	636,737	Woolens: Cloths of all Kinds, Duffels, and Kerseymere:—		
Other Countries . . . "	103,002	547,494	To United States . . pieces	129,883	472,539
Copper, Wrought, or other Sorts . . . "	58,114	381,866	British N. America . . "	25,845	96,518
Brass of all Sorts . . "	26,554	155,293	" East Indies . . . "	78,556	297,303
Lead, Pig, Rolled and Sheet, and Shot:—			Australia . . . "	31,339	170,706
To Russia . . . tons	3,572	80,930	Other Countries . . . "	298,715	1,450,861
France . . . "	797	16,963	Woolens: Mixed Stuffs, Flannels, Blankets, and Carpets:—		
United States . . . "	3,214	71,061	To Hanse Towns . . yards	4,748,613	230,133
Australia . . . "	2,893	70,224	United States . . . "	38,451,180	1,298,618
Other Countries . . . "	9,045	220,478	British N. America . . "	2,636,774	127,799
Lead Ore, Red and White Lead, and Litharge . . "	5,320	156,924			
Tin, Unwrought . . . cwts.	46,520	270,580			
Tin Plates:—					
To Hanse Towns . . value £	..	24,352			

ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.	ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.
Woolens, &c.—cont.		£	Woolen and Worsted Yarn :—		£
Australia . . . yards	4,905,560	305,008	To Russia . . . cwt.	17,895	298,804
Other Countries . . . "	25,860,929	1,236,489	Hanse Towns . . . "	104,293	1,494,423
Woolens, Entered at			Holland . . . "	40,580	451,106
Value . . . value £	..	425,158	Belgium . . . "	11,802	135,084
Woolen Stockings . . . doz. pr.	135,314	88,101	France . . . "	9,973	194,860
Woolens: Worsted Stuffs :—			Other Countries . . . "	29,387	380,113
To Hanse Towns . . . pieces	555,729	819,368	Total declared Value :—		
Holland . . . "	168,470	229,504	Enumerated Articles	106,670,863
United States . . . "	460,347	608,133	Unenumerated Articles	7,943,468
British N. America . . . "	113,702	158,007	All Articles	116,614,331
Other Countries . . . "	1,052,166	1,512,891			

AN ACCOUNT of the DECLARED VALUE of BRITISH and IRISH PRODUCE and MANUFACTURES EXPORTED from the UNITED KINGDOM to each FOREIGN COUNTRY and BRITISH POSSESSION in the YEAR ended DECEMBER 31, 1858.

FOREIGN.			
Russia, Northern Ports . . .	£2,728,398	Morocco £84,056	
„ Southern Ports . . .	367,880	Western Coast of Africa . . .	691,425
Sweden	428,161	Eastern Coast of Africa (Mozam- bique)	1,927
Norway	295,281	African Ports on the Red Sea . . .	4,525
Denmark (including Iceland) . . .	595,370	Cape Verde Islands . . .	14,725
Prussia	1,975,437	Persia	8,997
Mecklenburg	59,358	French Possessions in India (Pon- dicherry)	830
Hanover	1,632,842	Java	831,871
Oldenburg	61,583	Philippine Islands . . .	541,570
Hanse Towns	9,024,435	Other Islands in the Indian Seas (Celebes)	468
Holland	5,456,423	China (exclusive of Hong Kong) . . .	1,730,782
Belgium	1,812,636	South Sea Islands (Sandwich Islands)	67,435
France	4,861,558	Foreign W. Indies (including Haiti) . . .	2,590,258
Portugal Proper	1,432,159	United States (Ports on Atlantic) „ (California)	14,013,983 496,633
„ Azores	64,140	Mexico	414,811
„ Madeira	52,062	Central America	393,074
Spain	2,071,089	New Granada	505,739
„ Canary Islands	107,869	Venezuela	316,722
Sardinia	1,174,430	Ecuador	26,883
Tuscany	936,519	Brazil	3,981,264
Papal States	409,475	Uruguay	518,556
Two Sicilies	1,569,296	Buenos Ayres	1,008,444
Austrian Territories	1,297,355	Chili	1,117,573
Greece	249,792	Peru	1,159,455
Turkey	4,256,406		
Wallachia and Moldavia	175,984		
Syria and Palestine	760,523		
Egypt (Ports on the Mediterranean) . . .	1,985,823		
Tripoli	22		
Tunis	4,520		
Algeria	20,505	Total to Foreign Countries . . .	£76,389,337
BRITISH POSSESSIONS.			
Heligoland	282	Australia :—	
Channel Islands	508,443	West Australia	82,244
Gibraltar	853,738	South Australia	979,616
Malta	432,979	New South Wales	2,919,325
Ionian Islands	338,011	Victoria	5,419,354
Western Coast of Africa (British) . . .	263,193	Tasmania	573,152
Cape of Good Hope	1,602,607	New Zealand	490,507
Natal	100,770	British North American Colonies . . .	3,159,055
Ascension	6,917	„ West India Islands . . .	1,791,931
St. Helena	34,960	„ Guiana	461,768
Mauritius	601,899	Honduras (British Settlements) . . .	136,706
Aden	36,899	Falkland Islands	33
British Territories in the E. Indies (exclusive of Singapore & Ceylon) . . .	16,782,515	Total to British Possessions . . .	£40,224,994
Singapore	961,034		
Ceylon	540,700	Total to Foreign Countries } and British Possessions . . .	£116,614,331
Hong Kong	1,146,356		

AN ACCOUNT of the GROSS AMOUNT PRODUCED by CUSTOMS DUTIES upon
the PRINCIPAL ARTICLES of FOREIGN and COLONIAL MERCHANDISE, in the
YEAR ended 31st DECEMBER, 1858.

Butter	£95,489	Spirits:—	
Caoutchouc, Manufactures of ...	3,633	Rum	£1,396,267
Cheese	44,370	Brandy	830,521
Clocks	7,747	Geneva	19,679
Cocoa	12,797	Sugar, Unrefined:—	
Coffee:—		Of or from British Posses-	
Of or from British Possessions		sions in America	2,442,343
out of Europe	361,397	Of or from Mauritius	708,564
Of or from Foreign Countries	80,723	" British Posses-	
Corn:—		sions in the East Indies ...	505,423
Wheat	213,786	Of or from Foreign Countries	2,130,799
Barley	83,632	Sugar, Refined, & Sugar Candy:—	
Oats	93,917	Of or from British Posses-	
Pease	7,975	sions out of Europe	327
Beans	20,750	Of or from Foreign Countries	235,563
Indian Corn or Maize ...	88,116	Sugar, Molasses:—	
Wheatmeal and Flour ...	72,945	Of or from British Posses-	
Other kinds of Grain and		sions out of Europe	100,922
Meal	5,662	Of or from Foreign Countries	99,495
Eggs	22,440	Tallow	87,664
Embroidery and Needlework ...	8,532	Tea	5,186,171
Fruits:—		Timber and Wood:—	
Currants	302,819	Not sawn or split, or otherwise	
Figs	29,962	dressed, except hewn:—	
Lemons and Oranges ...	32,830	Of British Possessions ...	25,053
Raisins	129,411	Foreign	177,446
Hops	37,322	Deals, Battens, Boards, or	
Leather Manufactures:—		other Timber or Wood,	
Boots, Shoes, and Calashes	3,816	sawn or split:—	
Boot Fronts	5,128	Of British Possessions ...	64,266
Gloves	49,173	Foreign	298,305
Rice, not in the Husk	33,036	Firewood	6,269
Silk Manufactures of Europe:—		Lathwood	5,462
Broad Stuffs of all kinds ...	81,617	Tobacco:—	
Ribbons of all kinds ...	143,804	Stemmed	2,325,226
Plush for making Hats ...	6,688	Unstemmed	3,006,297
Silk Manufactures of India:—		Manufactured, and Snuff ...	122,693
Bandannahs, Corahs, Chop-		Watches	15,152
pas, Romals, and Taffaties	2,812	Wine:—	
Silk Manufactures of Europe and		Of British Possessions ...	105,345
India, indiscriminately:—		Foreign	1,721,742
Other descriptions of Silk		Woollen Manufactures, wholly or	
Goods	35,415	in part made up	1,559
Spices:—		Yarn, Worsted, Dyed or Coloured,	
Cassia Ligna	575	or fit for Embroidery or other	
Cinnamon	469	Fancy purposes	2,207
Cloves	2,529	Other Articles	289,763
Ginger	3,878		
Mace	1,477		
Nutmegs	11,381		
Pepper	105,790		
Pimento	1,297		
		Total	£24,155,852
		Net Produce	£23,816,145

QUANTITIES of the SEVERAL ARTICLES CHARGED with DUTIES of EXCISE, and FREE of DUTY; the QUANTITIES EXPORTED; and the QUANTITIES RETAINED for HOME CONSUMPTION, in the YEAR ended 31st DECEMBER, 1858.

ARTICLES.	Charged with Duty and Free of Duty.	Exported to Foreign Countries on Drawback, or Free of Duty.	Retained for Home Consumption.
ENGLAND AND WALES.	1858.	1858.	1858.
Hops lbs.	53,125,101	4,176,315	48,948,786
Malt:—			
Charged with Duty . . . bush.			
" Used in Beer, Ex-ported (estimated) . . . "	38,073,119	1,105,622	36,967,497
Free of Duty for distillation and exportation . . . "	544,997	275,105	269,892
Spirits:—			
Charged with Duty . . . galls.	10,448,572	419,981	10,028,591
Free of Duty for exportation . . . "	1,266,255	1,266,255	—
Paper lbs.	142,360,168	13,431,101	128,929,067
SCOTLAND.			
Hops lbs.	—	936	—
Malt:—			
Charged with Duty . . . bush.			
" Used in Beer ex-ported (estimated) . . . "	1,439,873	108,953	1,330,920
Free of Duty for distillation and exportation . . . "	3,700,819	35,870	3,664,449
Spirits:—			
Charged with Duty . . . galls.	6,836,037	54,158	6,781,879
Free of Duty for exportation . . . "	1,713,973	1,713,973	—
Paper lbs.	42,612,630	3,099,395	39,513,235
IRELAND.			
Malt:—			
Charged with Duty . . . bush.		255	
" Used in Beer ex-ported (estimated) . . . "	2,092,673	15,720	2,076,698
Free of Duty for distillation and exportation . . . "	804,005	7,688	796,317
Spirits:—			
Charged with Duty . . . galls.	6,402,142	—	6,402,142
Free of Duty for exportation . . . "	291,494	291,494	—
Paper lbs.	7,875,027	18,332	7,856,695
UNITED KINGDOM.			
Hops lbs.	53,125,101	4,177,251	48,947,850
Malt:—			
Charged with Duty . . . bush.		255	
" Used in Beer ex-ported (estimated) . . . "	41,605,665	1,230,295	40,375,115
Free of Duty for distillation and exportation . . . "	5,049,321	318,663	4,730,658
Spirits:—			
Charged with Duty . . . galls.	23,686,751	474,139	23,212,612
Free of Duty for exportation . . . "	3,271,722	3,271,722	—
Paper lbs.	192,847,825	16,548,828	176,298,997

PUBLIC INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

An Account of the Gross Public Income and Expenditure for the Year ended 30th of September, 1858; also, like Account for the Year ended 31st of December, 1858. (Lord Monteagle of Brandon.) 4th February, 1859. (12 L.)

1.—AN ACCOUNT of the GROSS PUBLIC INCOME of the UNITED KINGDOM of GREAT BRITAIN and IRELAND in the Year ended the 30th day of September, 1858, and of the Actual Issues of Payments within the same Period, Including Sinking Fund of War Loans, but exclusive of the Sums applied to the Redemption of Funded or paying off Unfunded Debt, and of the Advances and Repayments for Local Works, &c.

INCOME.				EXPENDITURE.			
	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Customs	23,472,830	14	10	Interest and Management of the Permanent Debt	23,557,235	13	7
Excise	17,781,000	0	0	Unclaimed Dividends paid	52,616	17	2
Stamps	7,728,342	18	10	Terminable Annuities	3,970,345	18	4
Taxes (Land and Assessed)	3,136,083	7	4	Interest of Exchequer Bonds, 1854 and 1855	175,000	0	0
Property Tax	7,852,624	9	6	Interest of Exchequer Bills, Supply	781,917	10	0
Post Office	3,025,000	0	0	Ditto (Deficiency)	156	5	0
Crown Lands	276,940	9	5	Charges on Consol. Fund:—			
Miscellaneous:—				Civil List	402,188	18	9
Produce of the Sale of Old Stores, and other extra Receipts	1,090,832	8	3	Annuities and Pensions	335,987	2	9
Money received from the East India Company for Retired Pay, &c.	60,000	0	0	Salaries and Allowances	157,734	17	8
Miscellaneous Receipts, including Imprest and other Moneys	662,499	18	1	Diplomatic Salaries, &c.	163,028	8	10
Unclaimed Dividends received	125,395	11	10	Courts of Justice	580,632	18	6
	£65,161,499	18	1	Miscellaneous Charges on the Consolidated Fund	178,295	7	3
Excess of Expenditure over Income, in the year ended September 30th, 1858	1,409,157	13	2	Supply Services:—			
				Army, including Militia, Commissariat, and Ordnance	13,248,736	0	6
				Navy, including Packet Service and Transports	10,357,103	13	3
				Miscellaneous Civil Services, including Princess Royal's Dowry	7,318,626	13	2
				Salaries, &c. of Revenue Departments	4,450,358	6	6
				Expenses of the late War with China (paid to the East India Company)	590,693	0	0
					£66,320,657	11	3
				For Redemption of Exchequer Bonds (see Account, No. 2, below)	—		
				Sinking Fund on the Loan of 5,000,000 <i>l.</i> , per Act 19 Vict., c. 21	250,000	0	0
Total	£66,570,657	11	3	Total	£66,570,657	11	3

PUBLIC INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

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2.—AN ACCOUNT of the BALANCES of the PUBLIC MONEY remaining in the Exchequer on the 30th day of September, 1857; the Amount of Money raised by the Additions to the Funded or Unfunded Debt in the Year ended the 30th day of September, 1858; the Money applied towards the Redemption of the Funded or paying off Unfunded Debt, exclusive of Sinking Fund of War Loan; the total Amount of Advances and Repayments on Account of Local Works, &c.

Balances in the Exchequer	£	s.	d.	Issued:—	£	s.	d.
on the Sept. 30th, 1857	7,963,015	16	0	Applied to Purchase of—			
Money raised in the year ended Sept. 30th, 1858:—				Funded Debt	34,652	9	7
Funded Debt:—Nil.				Supply Exchequer Bills	73,800	0	0
Exchequer Bonds (Series E):				Exchequer Bonds	2,000,000	0	0
Raised per Act 21 Vict., c. 14, in part of 2,000,000l.	1,000,000	0	0	To the Paymaster-General, in Exchequer Bills, to exchange Supply Bills	20,587,400	0	0
Exchequer Bills:—				To the Paymaster-General, in Money, out of Ways and Means Grants, to pay off Supply Bills	27,800	0	0
In part of Grant of 20,911,500l., per Act 21 Vict., c. 13, and dated June 15th, 1858	20,876,000	0	0	Excess of Expenditure over Income in the year ended September 30th, 1858	1,409,157	13	2
Repayment of Advances for Purchase of Bullion, for Local Works, &c., under various Acts of Parliament, less Advances for ditto	523,882	0	5	Balances in the Exchequer on Sept. 30th, 1858:—			
Total	£30,362,897	16	5	At the Bank of England	5,503,823	18	2
				At the Bank of Ireland	726,263	15	6
				Total	£30,362,897	16	5

3.—AN ACCOUNT of the GROSS PUBLIC INCOME of the UNITED KINGDOM of GREAT BRITAIN and IRELAND in the Year ended the 31st day of December, 1858, and of the Actual Issues or Payments within the same Period, including Sinking Fund on War Loan, but exclusive of the Sums applied to the Redemption of Funded or paying off Unfunded Debt, &c.

INCOME.				EXPENDITURE.			
	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Customs	24,091,999	13	6	Interest and Management of the Permanent Debt	23,546,878	1	9
Excise	17,966,000	0	0	Unclaimed Dividends paid	46,674	8	7
Stamps	7,996,342	18	10	Terminable Annuities	3,969,602	16	10
Taxes (Land and Assessed)	3,158,033	7	4	Interest of Exchequer Bonds, 1854 and 1855	156,250	0	0
Property Tax	7,591,187	14	9	Interest of Exchequer Bills, Supply	781,917	10	0
Post Office	3,075,000	0	0	Ditto (Deficiency)	156	5	0
Crown Lands	277,440	9	5	Charges on Consol. Fund:—			
Miscellaneous:—				Civil List	406,871	5	0
Produce of the Sale of Old Stores, and other extra Receipts	1,291,643	5	2	Annuities and Pensions	339,405	19	5
Money received from the Revenues of India, for Retired Pay, Pensions, &c.	60,000	0	0	Salaries and Allowances	158,060	3	8
Miscellaneous Receipts, including Imprest and other Moneys	653,952	10	10	Diplomatic Salaries and Pensions	162,638	16	2
Unclaimed Dividends received	125,395	11	10	Courts of Justice	598,885	12	2
				Miscellaneous Charges on the Consolidated Fund	166,714	16	7
				Supply Services:—			
				Army, including Militia, Commis. and Ordnance	12,588,736	0	6
				Navy, including Packet Service and Transports	9,637,103	13	3
				Miscell. Civil Services	7,253,059	9	5
				Salaries, &c., of Revenue Departments	4,474,400	4	3
				China Naval and Military Operations	391,943	0	0
				War Expenses (Russia)	230,000	0	0
				Sinking Fund of the Loan of 5,000,000l.	250,000	0	0
					65,159,338	2	7
Total	£66,286,995	11	8	Excess of Income, Dec. 31st	1,127,657	9	1
				Total	£66,286,995	11	8

4.—AN ACCOUNT of the BALANCES of the PUBLIC MONEY remaining in the Exchequer on the 31st day of December, 1857; the Amount of Money raised by the Additions to the Funded or Unfunded Debt in the year ended the 31st day of December, 1858; the Money applied towards the Redemption of the Funded, or paying off Unfunded Debt, exclusive of Sinking Fund of War Loan; the Total Amount of Advances and Repayments on account of Local Works, &c., with the Difference accruing thereon, and the Balances in the Exchequer on the 31st day of December, 1858.

Balances in the Exchequer	£	s.	d.	Issued:—	£	s.	d.
on December 31st, 1857 .	6,879,658	19	2	Applied to Purchase of			
Money raised in the Year				Funded Debt . . .	31,052	18	0
ended Dec. 31st, 1858:—				Exchequer Bonds . . .	2,000,000	0	0
Funded Debt:—Nil.				To the Paymaster-General,			
Exchequer Bonds (Ser.E):				in Exchequer Bills, to ex-			
Raised per Act 21				change Supply Bills .	20,587,400	0	0
Vict., c. 14, in part of				To the Paymaster-General,			
2,000,000l.	1,000,000	0	0	in Money, out of Ways			
Exchequer Bills:—				and Means Grants, to pay			
In part of Grant of				off Supply Bills . . .	32,200	0	0
20,911,500l., per Act 21				Balances in the Exchequer			
Vict., c. 13, and dated				on Dec. 31st, 1858 . . .	7,755,455	3	2
June 15th, 1858 . . .	20,876,000	0	0				
Repayment of Advances							
for Purchase of Bullion							
for Local Works, &c.,							
under various Acts of							
Parliament, less Ad-							
vances for ditto . . .	522,791	12	11				
Excess of Income over Ex-							
penditure in the Year							
ended Dec. 31st, 1858 .	1,127,657	9	1				
Total .	£30,406,108	1	2	Total .	£30,406,108	1	2

SUPPLY.

Account of the Sums voted in Supply during each Year from 1835 to 1858, both inclusive, under the several Heads of Army, Navy, Ordnance, and Miscellaneous Services, and abstract of Grants for Miscellaneous Services from 1835 to 1858. (Mr. Wilson.) 30th July, 1858. (508.)

THE sum voted for the army, navy, and ordnance, in 1835, was 11,730,072l.; in 1838, 12,681,039l.; in 1841, 15,536,732l.; in 1845, 15,620,541l.; in 1847, 17,340,096l.; in 1851, 15,498,839l.; in 1853, 17,235,154l.; in 1854, 29,609,330l.; in 1855, 48,235,809l.; in 1856, 37,251,630l.; in 1857, 21,565,825l.; and, in 1858, 21,850,604l. Besides these sums, there was voted for the war in Russia, in 1854, 3,000,000l.; in 1855, 3,000,000l.; and, in 1856, 2,000,000l.; for the Persian expedition, 900,000l. in 1857; and for the Chinese expedition, 400,000l. in 1857; for the civil service, usually termed Miscellaneous, in 1835, 2,393,182l.; it continued at about the same amount till 1844, when it reached 3,000,500l.; it increased in 1850 to 4,065,642l.; in 1854, to 6,648,522l.; and, in 1858, to 7,239,795l. In the year 1857 there was voted for the Princess Royal's dowry, 40,000l. In 1854, the salaries for revenue departments were voted separately in the amount of 4,052,803l., which increased to 4,723,149l. in 1858. The distress in Ireland caused votes of 132,000l. in 1846, 1,700,000l. in 1847, and 393,510l. in

1848. The Canada insurrection necessitated votes of 500,000*l.* in 1837, 1,000,000*l.* in 1838, 354,746*l.* in 1839, 108,000*l.* in 1840, 108,000*l.* in 1841, and 25,300*l.* in 1842. The Kaffir war, 1,100,000*l.* in 1847, 300,000*l.* in 1851, 460,000*l.* in 1852, and 200,000*l.* in 1853. The China war cost 173,442*l.* in 1840, 400,000*l.* in 1841, 806,566*l.* in 1842, 821,020*l.* in 1843, and 590,000*l.* in 1857. The opium compensation, 1,281,211*l.* in 1843. In the grants for miscellaneous service, Class I., public works and buildings show the expenditure for the two Houses of Parliament, which commenced, in 1837, with a vote of 88,000*l.*, and continued yearly at the rate of 100,000*l.* to 150,000*l.*, making a total sum of nearly 2,500,000*l.* For harbours of refuge the first vote was, in 1845, for 120,000*l.*, and continued from year to year in the sum of 200,000*l.* per annum. Under Class II., salaries, &c., the printing and stationery increased from 195,000*l.* in 1835, to 401,000*l.* in 1858. The votes for public education in 1835, were 30,000*l.* for Great Britain, and 35,000*l.* for Ireland; and they increased gradually, till, in 1858, they amounted to 663,000*l.* for Great Britain and 223,000*l.* for Ireland. The vote for the British Museum establishment in 1835, was 17,700*l.*, and in 1858, 79,000*l.* Under Class VII., there are many isolated items. The expenses of her Majesty's coronation, in 1838, cost 70,000*l.* In 1846 there were votes for the relief of sufferers by fire at Quebec, 20,000*l.*, and for sufferers by fire at St. John's, Newfoundland, 30,000*l.* For the census of population there was voted 20,000*l.* in 1841, 3,500*l.* in 1842, 130,000*l.* in 1851, 40,200*l.* in 1852, 9,000*l.* in 1855, and 3,000*l.* in 1856.

PROPERTY AND INCOME TAX.

Return of the Amounts of Property assessed under the different Schedules of the Property and Income Tax Acts in England and Wales and in Scotland, for the year ending 5th April, 1853, and for each subsequent year, &c., and a similar return for Ireland. (The Lord Monteagle of Brandon.) 6th May, 1858. (263 L.)

THE amount of property and property assessed under the different schedules in England and Wales, in the year ending 5th April, 1853, was 234,743,377*l.*; 5th April, 1854, 256,369,364*l.*; 5th April, 1855, 254,869,764*l.*; 5th April, 1856, 255,511,656*l.*; and 5th April, 1857, 261,069,680*l.* In Scotland, the total amount of property and property assessed was, year ending 5th April, 1853, 27,627,037*l.*; 5th April, 1854, 30,551,204*l.*; 5th April, 1855, 30,543,911*l.*; 5th April, 1856, 30,166,796*l.*; and 5th April, 1857, 30,498,404*l.* In Ireland, the total amount of property and property assessed was, year ending 5th April, 1854, 21,397,088*l.*; 5th April, 1855, 21,586,782*l.*; 5th April, 1856, 21,390,446*l.*; and 5th April, 1857, 21,488,343*l.* Under Schedule A, in England and Wales, the property assessed was, year ending 5th April, 1853, 96,172,965*l.*; 1854, 99,274,309*l.*; 1855, 100,835,328*l.*; 1856, 101,938,175*l.*; and 1857, 103,603,068*l.* In

Scotland, under the same schedule, 1853, 11,028,796*l*.; 1854, 11,947,791*l*.; 1855, 12,144,437*l*.; 1856, 12,428,781*l*.; 1857, 12,543,811*l*. In Ireland, under the same schedule, 1854, 11,767,810*l*.; 1855, 11,892,120*l*.; 1856, 11,878,545*l*.; and 1857, 11,952,285*l*. Under Schedule B, the amount of property remained somewhat stationary. In the year ending 5th April, 1857, it was, in England, 41,186,404*l*.; in Scotland, 5,932,156*l*.; and in Ireland, 2,582,538*l*. Under Schedule C, the amount in the year ending 5th April, 1857, was, England, 26,935,770*l*.; in Ireland, 1,408,980*l*. Schedule C is not extended to Scotland. Under Schedule D, the amount of property assessed in England and Wales in the year ended 5th April, 1853, was 59,563,300*l*.; 1854, 76,215,936*l*.; 1855, 74,610,127*l*.; 1856, 72,579,557*l*.; and 1857, 73,511,927*l*. In Scotland, under the same schedule, in the year ending 5th April, 1853, 10,474,712*l*.; 1854, 12,185,924*l*.; 1855, 11,889,864*l*.; in 1856, 11,003,079*l*.; and 1857, 11,109,149*l*. In Ireland, under the same schedule, 1854, 4,621,069*l*.; 1855, 4,780,140*l*.; 1856, 4,618,735*l*.; and 1857, 4,577,874*l*. Under Schedule E, the amount assessed in England and Wales in the year ending 5th April, 1853, was 11,056,711*l*.; 1854, 12,853,914*l*.; 1855, 13,559,321*l*.; 1856, 15,516,421*l*.; and 1857, 15,832,511*l*. The amount assessed in Scotland, under the same schedule, increased from 624,125*l*. in the year ending 5th April, 1853, to 913,288*l*. in 1857; and in Ireland, from 861,324*l*. in 1853, to 966,666*l*. in 1857. The amount of property and income tax in England and Wales was, year ending 5th April, 1853, 5,388,691*l*.; 1854, 6,001,028*l*.; 1855, 12,086,522*l*.; 1856, 13,942,795*l*.; and 1857, 14,286,082*l*. In Scotland, 1853, 481,135*l*.; 1854, 564,702*l*.; 1855, 1,140,730*l*.; 1856, 1,318,727*l*.; and 1857, 1,339,835*l*. In Ireland, 1854, 567,309*l*.; 1855, 1,130,838*l*.; 1856, 1,283,986*l*.; and 1857, 1,289,415*l*.

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS (IRELAND).

The Agricultural Statistics for Ireland for the Year 1857.

In 1857 there were 5,859,117 statute acres under crop, being 105,570 more than in 1856. The breadth under each crop was as follows:—wheat, 579,646 acres, or 9·5 per cent.; oats, 1,980,934 acres, or 33·8 per cent.; barley, 211,288 acres, or 3·6 per cent.; rye, 15,348 acres, or 0·3 per cent.; beans, 10,631 acres, or 0·2 per cent.; pease, 2,955 acres, or 0·1 per cent.; potatoes, 1,146,647 acres, or 19·6 per cent.; turnips, 350,047 acres, or 6 per cent.; meadows and clover, 1,369,892 acres, or 23·3 per cent.; flax, 97,721 acres, or 1·7 per cent.; other kinds, 154,008 acres, or 5·59 per cent. The number of holdings in 1857 was 594,392; 298,817 under 15 acres in extent; 264,264 above 15 acres, and under 100 acres; 21,463 between 100 and 200 acres; 8,231 from 200 to 500 acres; and 1,617 of 500 acres and upwards. The entire quantity of land in the possession of landholders was 20,220,582 acres, of which 4,674,423 acres were returned as under bog, or unallotted waste. The estimated total produce was as follows: wheat, 1,662,957 quarters; oats, 8,895,347 quarters; barley, 848,783 quarters;

bere, 28,553 quarters; rye, 49,252 quarters; potatoes, 3,509,344 tons; turnips, 4,360,197 tons; mangel wurzel, 298,515 tons; cabbage, 327,875 tons; flax, 14,475 tons; and hay, 2,566,642 tons. Of live stock there were in 1857—599,782 horses, 19,512 mules, 160,987 asses, 3,620,954 cattle, 3,452,252 sheep, 1,255,186 pigs, 243,046 goats, and 9,491,463 poultry. The total value of live stock—at 8*l*. for horses and mules, 1*l*. for asses, 6*l*. 10*s*. for cattle, 1*l*. 2*s*. for sheep, 1*l*. 5*s*. for pigs, and 6*d*. each for poultry—was 34,346,428*l*.

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS (IRELAND).

Return of the extent of Land under Crops for the Year 1858.

The total area of Ireland is 20,811,774 acres. The total extent under crop in 1858 was 5,882,492 acres; of which, wheat, 551,386 acres; oats, 1,976,929 acres; barley, 190,721 acres; bere, 16,489 acres; beans, 12,876 acres; potatoes, 1,160,056 acres; turnips, 337,877 acres; mangel wurzel, 30,027 acres; cabbage, 33,107 acres; carrots, 23,450 acres; vetches, 33,441 acres; flax, 91,555 acres; meadows and clover, 1,424,578 acres; fallow, or uncropped arable land, 44,937 acres.

PUBLIC INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

*Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 18th May, 1858, for—
An Account of the Public Income and Expenditure of the United Kingdom,
in the Year ending the 31st day of March, 1858 (in continuation of Par-
liamentary Paper, No. 281, of Session 2, 1857). (Mr. William Wil-
liams.) (455.)*

INCOME.				£
CUSTOMS AND EXCISE:				
Spirits:—				
Foreign	918,071	
Rum	1,381,693	
British	8,963,874	
Malt	5,326,023	
Hops	521,475	
Wine	1,733,729	
Sugar and Molasses	5,587,802	
Tea	5,361,165	
Coffee	474,994	
Tobacco and Snuff	5,272,471	
Butter	103,004	
Cheese	48,315	
Currants and Raisins	325,342	
Corn	486,026	
Silks	231,490	
Paper	1,130,683	
Candles and Tallow	76,722	
Glass	4,336	
Timber	580,571	
Excise Licences	1,424,663	
Post-horse Duties		
Hackney Carriages	80,130	
Stage Carriages	118,561	
Railways	348,611	
Miscellaneous of Customs and Excise	686,606	
Total Customs and Excise				41,186,357
Brought forward				41,186,357
STAMPS:				
Deeds and other Instruments	1,331,789	
Probates and Legacies	3,032,433	
Insurance:—				
Marine	319,508	
Fire	1,356,069	
Bills of Exchange, Bankers' Notes	594,092	
Newspapers and Advertisements	153,420	
Receipts	281,115	
Other Stamp Duties	402,201	
ASSESSED AND LAND TAXES:				
Land Tax	1,142,174	
Houses	754,044	
Servants	192,760	
Horses	351,006	
Carriages	300,597	
Dogs	197,604	
Additional 10 per cent.	14,320	
Other Assessed Taxes	198,257	
PROPERTY AND INCOME TAX	11,396,435	
POST OFFICE	3,038,113	
CROWN LANDS	417,909	
Other Ordinary Revenue and other Resources	1,596,887	
TOTAL INCOME				68,257,090
Excess of Expendit. over Income				2,355,463
				70,612,553

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EXPENDITURE.

REVENUE—Charges of Collection:				JUSTICE:		
Civil Departments:—				Courts of Justice	...	£
Customs	823,062	Police and Criminal Prosecutions	...	983,129
Excise	663,155	Correction	...	1,084,712
Preventive Service, &c.	46,862		...	1,032,201
Stamps	167,763	DIPLOMATIC:		
Assessed Taxes	464,508	Foreign Ministers' Salaries and	...	
Other ordinary Revenues	26,966	Pensions	...	158,934
Superannuation and other Allowances	442,670	Consuls' Salaries and Superannuation Allowances	...	209,849
Total Charges of Collection of the Revenue, exclusive of Post Office				Disbursements, Outfit	...	44,045
			2,634,986	FORCES:		
PUBLIC DEBT:				Army, including Ordnance—	...	
Interest on Permanent Debt	23,508,580	Effective; Charge	...	10,714,311
Terminable Annuities	3,979,956	Non-Effective; Charge	...	2,200,846
Management	65,393	Navy—		
Unclaimed Dividends repaid	88,531	Effective; Charge	...	9,225,040
Interest on Exchequer Bills	774,643	Non-Effective; Charge	...	1,364,960
Interest on Exchequer Bonds	210,000	Persian Expedition	...	900,000
Total Debt				Late War with China	...	590,693
			28,627,103	Bounties, &c., for Promoting Fisheries	...	16,212
CIVIL GOVERNMENT:				Public Works	...	1,001,827
Civil List—Privy Purse; Salaries of the Household and Tradesmen's Bills	371,800	Payments out of the Revenue of Crown Lands, for Improvements	...	121,714
The Allowances to the several Branches of the Royal Family, to his Royal Highness Leopold Prince of Coburg (now King of the Belgians),* and the Marriage Portion of Princess Royal	180,887	Post Office: Charges of Collection and other payments	...	1,812,441
The Lord Lieutenant of Ireland's Establishment	26,696	Quarantine and Warehousing Establishments	...	8,427
The Salaries and Expenses of the Houses of Parliament (including Printing)	146,987	Miscellaneous, not classed under the foregoing heads	...	2,862,132
Civil Department, including Superannuation Allowances	707,047	Redemption of Sound Dues	...	1,125,206
Other Annuities, Pensions, and Superannuation Allowances on the Consolidated Fund, and on the Gross Revenue	194,110	TOTAL ORDINARY EXPENDITURE		
Pensions, Civil List	16,258	68,362,553
Total Civil Government				Exchequer Bonds	...	2,000,000
			1,643,785	Sinking Fund of War Loans (19 Vict. c. 21)	...	250,000
				Total, including Bonds, Sinking Funds, &c.		
					...	70,612,553
				Memorandum:		
				The Amount of Terminable Annuities at the end of each Year was	...	4,006,090
				In corresponding Perpetuities, as estimated by Mr. Finlaison	...	734,918
				Difference		
					...	3,271,173

* No part of this allowance is at present paid for the use of King Leopold. The Trustees, after discharging certain annuities and pensions to the establishment of the late Princess Charlotte, repay the balance of the annuity to the Exchequer. The sum so repaid in the last year was 35,500*l*.

NATIONAL DEBT.

Account of the Gross Amount of all Bank Annuities and Long Annuities transferred, and Money Paid to the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt. (87.)

THE gross amount received by the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt, including interest, from the 6th of August, 1817, up to and due upon the 20th November, 1856, was, from Savings' Banks, 70,260,724*l.* 6*s.* 5*d.*; and from Friendly Societies, 4,540,887*l.* 17*s.* 2*d.* Total, 74,801,612*l.* 3*s.* 7*d.* The gross amount paid during the same interval was, Savings' Banks, 35,141,139*l.* 5*s.* 7*d.*; Friendly Societies, 2,588,551*l.* 15*s.* 4*d.* Total, 37,729,691*l.* 0*s.* 11*d.*

The gross amount of interest paid and credited to Savings' Banks and Friendly Societies up to and due upon the 20th November, 1856, was, Savings' Banks, 27,717,852*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.*; Friendly Societies, 1,544,629*l.* 17*s.* 2*d.* Total, 29,262,481*l.* 18*s.* 8*d.* The expenses incurred by the Commissioners for salaries of clerks during the year amounted to 5,813*l.*

NATIONAL DEBT.

Account of the Gross Amount of all Sums Received and Paid by the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt, on Account of the Banks for Savings and Friendly Societies.

THE gross amount received by the Commissioners, including interest, from the 6th August, 1817, to the 20th November, 1857, was, from Savings' Banks, 72,135,939*l.* 8*s.*; and from Friendly Societies, 4,641,703*l.* 6*s.* 11*d.* Total, 76,777,642*l.* 7*s.* 7*d.* The gross amount paid during the same period was, Savings' Banks, 36,880,216*l.* 6*s.* 3*d.*; Friendly Societies, 2,696,712*l.* 5*s.* 5*d.* Total, 39,576,928*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.*

The gross amount of interest paid and credited to Savings' Banks and Friendly Societies up to the 20th November, 1856, was, Savings' Banks, 28,853,013*l.* 8*s.* 5*d.*; Friendly Societies, 1,621,946*l.* 6*s.* 11*d.* Total, 30,473,959*l.* 15*s.* 4*d.* The expenses incurred by the Commissioners during the year were 6,045*l.*

TARIFFS.

Return of the New and Old Rates of Duty upon several Articles levied by the Tariffs of Foreign Countries, in which Alterations have been made, and showing the Percentage Increase or Decrease of Duties, and the Date of these Alterations, from the 31st July, 1857, to the 1st August, 1858.

RUSSIA.—By an ukase of the 7th April, 1858, an additional rate of 5 per cent. on the import and export duties was to be levied from the 1st July, 1858, on all articles except sugar (raw and refined).

SWEDEN.—From the 1st January, 1858, a considerable reduction was

made on the import duties of many articles, varying from 15 to 70 per cent. The following are the changes made on articles of British produce and manufactures:—Cutlery: razors, from 2s. 2·19d. per lb. to 7·14d. per lb.; penknives, from 2s. 2·19d. to 1s. 4d. Earthenware: brown pottery, from 1·60d. to 0·43d. per lb. Iron: cast, pig and ballast, iron in bar, hoop, rails, sheets, old, were allowed duty free; forged or rolled anchors, from 2s. 6·50d. to 1s. 4d. per cwt.; chains, from 1s. 7·25d. to 1s. per cwt. Lead, in pig, introduced duty free. Manufactures and made articles, from 25 per cent., *ad valorem*, to 20 per cent. Piece goods: cotton, unbleached undyed, from 1s. 6·65d. to 5·71d. per lb.; bleached dyed, from 1s. 2·77d. to 10d. per lb.; printed or stamped, from 1s. 4·80d. to 1s. 0·86d. per lb. Piece linen: cambric, lawn, linen, from 5s. 0·05d. to 3s. 6·86d. per lb. Sugar, refined, from 2·54d. to 1·86d. per lb. Thread cotton of all kinds, from 8·37d. to 5·71d. per lb. Yarns and twist cotton, single or double, in hanks or bobbins, undyed, from 1·76d. to 1·71d. per lb. In the export duties some reduction was made in raw copper, wood, and wrought or rolled iron, mixed metals, and ore were allowed to be exported free of duty.

ZOLLVEREIN.—A reduction of 25 per cent. was made in the duty on molasses, from 12s. to 9s. per 110½ lbs.

FRANCE.—Grain, flour, and meal to be imported free of duty up to the 30th September, 1858. Iron flat bars, of the width multiplied by the thickness of 458 millimetres or more; square bars, measuring 22 millimetres or more on each face; round bars, measuring more than 15 millimetres or more in diameter, and flattened iron of irregular shape, and iron, steel, and copper, rough-cast, bar, &c., admitted free of duty; to be exported after having been applied in French manufactures and to the construction of iron ships, or boats, or machines, &c. Foreign seagoing vessels, sailing or steam, period for naturalization, at 10 per cent. *ad valorem*. The duty on wax, yellow or brown, was reduced 60 per cent. in foreign ships, and 96·67 per cent. in French ships. The export duty on foreign brandies of pure alcohol, was increased 40 per cent. from 12s. to 20s. per 22 gallons. Upon raw skins, a decrease of 20 to 50 per cent. The export duty was abolished on certain kinds of live animals, such as apes, lambs, goats, &c. Produce and strippings of animals, fish, farinaceous food, colonial produce, vegetable juices, timber and wood, &c., and watches and clocks.

SPAIN.—A duty of 40 per cent. in Spanish vessels, and 48 per cent. in foreign vessels, was imposed on cloths of silk, wool, or cotton washed over with India rubber in impermeable manufactures, and without seam, for objects of clothing and other uses.

PORTUGAL.—Wheat, rye, and barley were admitted duty free.

TWO SICILIES.—The import duty on crushed sugar was decreased from 35s. to 29s. 9d. per 196 lbs.; and on loaf sugar, from 52s. 6d. to 31s. 6d. On coffee, from 42s. to 35s. per 196 lbs. On sugar, brown, the duty was increased from 2s. to 11s. 1·27d. per 75 lbs.

TUSCANY.—An import duty was imposed on animals, paper, straw hats, hay, manufactured straw, and potash.

MODENA.—A decrease of 60 to 80 per cent. was made on the import duties on cotton, linen, woollen manufactures, on iron wares, and on machinery.

GREECE.—The tariff of Greece was greatly altered, more especially in changing from *ad valorem* to specific duties.

MOROCCO.—An export duty of 3*d.* per 118 lbs. was imposed on native produce of all kinds exported from Mogador.

TUNIS.—Grain and pulse were admitted duty free.

MONTÉ VIDEO.—Steam vessels, seeds and plants, gold and silver coins, were allowed to be imported duty free. A sliding scale, regulated by the price of wheat, was imposed on wheat flour.

BRAZIL.—A decrease of 20 to 40 per cent. was made in the import duties on cotton cambrics, shawls and mantles, cotton shirts for men, &c.

COAL MINES.

Reports of the Inspectors of Coal Mines for the Year 1857.

DURING the year 1856 there were 801 fatal colliery accidents, causing the loss of 1,027 lives. In 1857, the number of accidents was 760, causing the loss of 1,119 lives. The accidents were 74 explosions of fire-damp, 360 falls of roof and coal and the sides of working, 144 in shafts, and 182 miscellaneous.

During the year 1856 there were about 230,000 persons employed in and about the collieries of Great Britain, and about 66½ million tons of coal were raised. The loss of life by accidents was, therefore, at the rate of about one person killed in each 224 employed, and one killed for each 64,751 tons of coal raised. In the year 1857, the production of coal was considerably increased in some districts, whilst in others there was a slight decrease, the total production being probably about 68,000,000 tons. The loss of life, therefore, in 1857, is about one person killed for each 60,769 tons produced.

This serious loss of life amongst persons following a peaceful occupation is deserving the attention of the country at large, and imperatively demands the best efforts of the owners, agents, and workpeople. The inspectors have, on the whole, acknowledged the increased attention which has been paid towards improving the management since the passing of the present Act; but it was obvious that in some districts accidents occur in consequence of defective management; and the inspectors strongly recommended to the colliery owners and agents in such districts the employment of viewers combining practical knowledge with scientific attainments.

The efforts being made by the owners and managers of collieries, and others, in various parts of the country, to establish mining schools, are the result of the long acknowledged want of a special education as applied to coal mining, and appear to the inspectors to deserve encouragement.

BANKS.

Return of the Name of every Bank, other than Private Banks, whether Unincorporate or Incorporate, trading in the United Kingdom or the Colonies, specifying the nature of the Liability of the Shareholders in every such Bank, whether the Liability is limited or unlimited, and, if limited, to what extent (Sir John Shelley.) 26th June, 1857.

THE return comprises the names of 124 existing banking companies, without any particulars as to their liability. Also of 25 banks formed since the 7 & 8 Vict., c. 112, 12 of which were in the United Kingdom with unlimited liability. In the Bank of British North America, and Colonial Bank, the shareholders were liable to the amount of the shares held in them; in the Bank of Ceylon, the West India Bank, the South Australian Banking Company, the Oriental Bank, the London Chartered Bank of Australia, the English, Scottish, and Australian Chartered Bank, the Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China, and the Bank of Australasia, the shareholders had a liability limited to twice the amount of their shares. In the Bahamas there was the public Bank of Nassau, without shareholders. In New Brunswick there were 7 banks, with shareholders liable to the amount of their stock. In Canada there were 23 banks, with liability limited to twice the amount of capital paid up. In the Cape of Good Hope there were 19 banks with unlimited liability. In the Mauritius there were 2 banks, with liability limited to double the amount of the entire shares. In New South Wales there were 8 banks, with the same liability. In South Australia, one bank with unlimited liability, and 2 limited. In Tasmania, 5 banks: 4 unlimited and 1 limited. In Victoria, 8 banks: 1 unlimited, and 7 limited to twice the amount of subscribed shares.

FISHERY BOARD (SCOTLAND).

Copy of Reports addressed to the Lords Commissioners of Her Majesty's Treasury, on the subject of the Fishery Board of Scotland. (Mr. George Skene Duff.) 13th February, 1857. (65.)

THE herring trade has been increasing considerably. The herrings cured have increased from 543,945 barrels in 1840, to 766,203 in 1855, and the exports from 252,000 to 442,000 barrels. To the 766,203 barrels cured, must be added 130,259 caught but not cured, giving 897,462 barrels as the total produce of the herring fisheries for 1855. The value of this produce was reckoned to have exceeded a million of pounds. The capital embarked in this trade was computed at 2,700,000*l.*, and it gives subsistence to 70,000 persons. The Commissioners reported in favour of retaining the brand.

No. CXXI.—COMMUNICATION BY POST.

Convention between her Majesty and the Queen of Spain, relative to communication by post, signed at Aranjuer, May 21, 1858; ratified at Madrid, July 10, 1858.

No. CXXII.—POST-OFFICE ARRANGEMENTS.

Convention between her Majesty and the King of Sardinia, relative to Post-Office arrangements, signed at London, December 12, 1857; ratified in London January 20, 1858.

No. CXXIII.—FOREIGN REFUGEES.

Papers respecting Foreign Refugees.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of her Majesty.]

On the 21st January, 1858, Count Persigny communicated to the Earl of Clarendon a note addressed to him by Count Walewski, dated the 20th, referring to the trial then pending in France, in consequence of attempts made on the person of the Emperor. Alluding to the fact that this fresh attempt, like those which preceded it, had been devised in England, he continued:—

“ It was in England that Pianori formed the plan of striking the Emperor; it was from London that, in an affair the recollection of which is still recent, Mazzini, Ledru-Rollin, and Campanella directed the assassins whom they had furnished with arms. It is there also that the authors of the last plot have leisurely prepared their means of action, have studied and constructed the instruments of destruction which they have employed, and it is from thence that they set out to carry their plans into execution.

“ In recording these circumstances, I at once add how much the Government of the Emperor is persuaded of the sincerity of the sentiments of reprobation which they created in England. It is equally convinced, that with such proofs in their possession of the abuse of hospitality, the English Government and people understand at once to what extent we are justified in directing our attention to them.

“ No one appreciates and respects more than we do, the liberality with which England is disposed to exercise the right of asylum in regard to foreigners, victims of political struggles. France, for her part, has always looked upon it as a duty of humanity never to close her frontiers to any honourable person in misfortune, whatever might be the party to which he belonged; and his Majesty's Government does not complain that its opponents should find refuge on the English soil, and live there in peace, remaining faithful to their opinions, to their very passions, under the protection of the British laws.

“ But, M. le Comte, how different is the attitude of the skilful demagogues established in England! It is no longer the hostility of misguided individuals, manifesting itself by all the excesses of the press and all the violences of language; it is no longer even the work of the factious, seeking to rouse opinion and to provoke disorder; it is assassination, elevated to doc-

trine, preached openly, practised in repeated attempts, the most recent of which has just struck Europe with amazement. Ought, then, the right of asylum to protect such a state of things? Is hospitality due to assassins? Ought the English legislation to contribute to favour their designs and their plans, and can it continue to shelter persons who, by their flagrant acts, place themselves beyond the pale of common right and under the ban of humanity?

"In submitting these questions to her Britannic Majesty's Government, the Government of the Emperor does not merely discharge a duty towards itself, it re-echoes the sentiment of the country, which, under the influence of the most legitimate anxiety, calls upon it to do so; and which, in a matter where the common interest among all nations and all governments is so clear, considers itself entitled to reckon upon the concurrence of England. The repetition and the wickedness of these guilty enterprises expose France to a danger against which we are bound to provide.

"Her Britannic Majesty's Government can assist us in averting it by affording us a guarantee of security which no State can refuse to a neighbouring State, and which we are authorized to expect from an ally. Fully relying, moreover, on the high sense of the English Cabinet, we refrain from indicating, in any way, the measures which it may see fit to take in order to comply with this wish. We rest entirely upon it for estimating the decisions which it shall deem best calculated to attain the object; and we are firmly persuaded that we shall not have appealed in vain to its conscience and to its goodwill."

NO. CXXIV.—FOREIGN REFUGEES IN ENGLAND.

Despatch from Count Walewski to Count de Persigny.

ON the 6th of February, 1858, Count Persigny communicated to the Earl of Clarendon a despatch sent him by Count Walewski, in which the Emperor's Government apologized for the addresses from the army on the occasion of the attacks of the 14th of January, which had been inadvertently inserted in the *Moniteur*.

ON the 20th of February, Earl Cowley wrote to the Earl of Clarendon, that having learnt that certain resolutions imputing blame to her Majesty's Government for not having made any reply to Count Walewski's despatch to Count Persigny, dated the 20th of January, had been affirmed by the House of Commons, he thought it his duty to Lord Clarendon to place on record, that although he had not been charged to make any official communication to the French Government in answer to that despatch he was enabled to place before the French Government the sentiments, views, and intentions of her Majesty's Government, far more fully and perhaps more satisfactorily than would have been the case had his language been clothed in a more official garb.

When Count Walewski's despatch was written, the irritation against the supposed apathy of England in a matter so important to France as the preservation of the Emperor's life was excessive. Rightly or wrongly, the idea prevailed that every conspiracy against his Majesty had been organized

in England, and that the British laws gave security to the conspirators. No counter-assertions on the part of her Majesty's Government would have had any effect at that moment; and any official notice of Count Walewski's despatch would, probably, have involved the two governments in a controversial discussion more likely to have increased than to have calmed the excitement which prevailed. If the object was to soothe, it was important to let time exert its usual influence, and to reserve the official answer to Count Walewski's despatch until it was known whether Parliament would answer the appeal which was to be made to it by her Majesty's Government.

But it ought not to be ignored, that, while taking this prudent course, the Earl of Clarendon lost no opportunity of informing the French Government, confidentially, of the true bearings of the question which had been raised. His lordship's language had been, from the beginning of this unfortunate affair, clear and straightforward. While vindicating the right of asylum which Great Britain has ever afforded to strangers of all ranks and nations, and while declaring, in terms as explicit as they are determined, the impossibility of infringing on that great principle of our Constitution, Lord Clarendon showed how utterly insufficient must any enactment be, to prevent men of desperate minds from entering upon desperate undertakings.

No. CXXV.—FOREIGN REFUGEES IN ENGLAND.

Correspondence respecting Foreign Refugees in England.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

ON the 23rd of February, 1858, Earl Cowley communicated to the Earl of Clarendon the regret of Count Walewski at the interpretation put by the House of Commons upon certain phrases in his despatch to Count Persigny, adding, that Count Walewski was anxious that the deplorable events which have occurred should not interrupt the friendly relations which existed between the two countries. On the 4th of March the Earl of Malmesbury instructed Earl Cowley to assure Count Walewski that her Majesty's advisers, on their accession to office, were earnestly desirous of maintaining in their integrity those close and friendly relations which since the restoration of the Empire have marked the alliance between France and Great Britain to the great benefit of both countries. After alluding to the voluntary repudiation by Count Walewski of anything which might be considered disparaging to the morality and honour of England in his despatch of the 20th of January, the Earl of Malmesbury announced, that proceedings had been instituted in two cases, one for complicity in the late murderous attempt, and another for a publication "elevating assassination to a doctrine."

In answer to this despatch Count Walewski said that he recognized, in

common with the Earl of Malmesbury, the great benefit of a good understanding between the two countries, and that he would be always disposed to aid in maintaining it. His Excellency admitted that he had used strong language, but it had been solely with reference to acts and proceedings dangerous to the tranquillity of France, carried on within the British territories. A formal despatch of the 11th of March, 1856, of Count Walewski to Count Persigny, renewed the sentiments of friendship which animated the Government of the Emperor. He stated that the Emperor had never intended to demand the support of foreign governments to increase his personal security, and that what he had more earnestly in view was the maintenance of the good relations existing with the neighbouring States.

No. CXXVL—PASSPORTS.

Correspondence respecting Passports.

[*Presented to the House of Commons by Command of Her Majesty.*]

THERE was no record in the Foreign Office of any printed regulations relating to applications for passports previous to the year 1846, and up to that year the understanding was that applicants for passports should obtain a letter of recommendation from some respectable person known to Government, or from some banker or other responsible person who would vouch for their respectability. In 1846 the fee on the issuing of a passport was 2*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.*, but in 1851 the fee was reduced to 7*s.* 6*d.* In consequence of the attempt made on the Emperor by refugees who had left England for the express purpose, the French Government was induced to restrict the facilities of access to France, and the regulations on passports in this country were somewhat altered. On the 16th January, 1858, Consul Featherstonhaugh, of Havre, called the attention of the Earl of Clarendon to the inconvenience and danger attending the delivery of passports by French consular agents in England to enable persons who are British subjects, or who pretend to be British subjects, to pass backwards and forwards between England and France. Referring to an inclosed passport, the British consul said :—

“Your lordship will see that no less than eleven British workmen were included in one passport, at the office of the French consul-general in London. At that period of the year labour is not in demand in France, and especially the labour of foreigners. In consequence these poor deluded men, after wandering about the country, wearing out their clothes and shoes, and meeting with no employment, had to tramp their way back to this consulate, utterly destitute and sick, imploring me to have compassion upon them, to give them food, and send them back to their native country. No alternative was left to me, for if I were not to do it, the police would arrest them for begging as vagabonds in the street, and throw them into a loathsome prison, from whence I should frequently have to send them to the hospital, and so put the country to a never-ceasing expense. This passport represents a single specimen of an evil that has taken great

proportions. The occasions are frequent when I am called upon by the police authorities in England, and persons who have been defrauded of their property, to trace individuals who are known to have taken passage for Havre, and in most cases I am unable to do more than give conjectural information; for, out of more than 5,000 passengers that were landed here in 1857 from Southampton and London, the greater part of whom were British subjects, not more than one-tenth of the number came to this consulate and were registered here: and such is the astuteness of the numerous swindlers that are constantly passing backwards and forwards, and such the consummate caution of practised political conspirators, that they generally baffle every attempt to detect them: they know now that passports are given upon demand to persons calling themselves British subjects upon payment of a fee. One of a gang, wanting to come here in the character of a British subject, takes a passport in a feigned name, and delivers it to his accomplice who is to use it; it bears no 'signalement' like the one I enclose; he arrives in Havre, shows his passport, '*au nom de l'Empereur*,' is permitted to land and go on to Paris, where he assumes whatever name he pleases, and only uses the passport when he returns to England. Such is the facility given to every description of bad men to carry on their nefarious undertakings in the character of British subjects. It is only a short time ago that two thieves, in the character of English farmers, reached Paris with passports of the class I have described, under the names of Walter Upton and Charles Horner. After robbing some jewellers in Paris, they, by the aid of their passport, embarked at this place for Southampton, and, commencing their depredations there, were arrested. It is now stated that on the recent audacious attempt upon the life of the Emperor, an Italian, who has been arrested as an accomplice in the crime, bore a passport as a British subject, countersigned by a foreign vice-consul."

The Earl of Clarendon, on the 19th January, transmitted a copy of the despatch from the British consul at Havre to Earl Cowley, and desired him to communicate the substance of it to Count Walewski; and in consequence of such representations, orders were sent to prohibit all diplomatic and consular agents of France from giving passports to any but French subjects. The Earl of Clarendon subsequently requested Earl Cowley to represent to the French Government, that inasmuch as the French consular agents in this country will no longer grant passports to other than French subjects, arrangements would be made for facilitating the issue of Foreign Office passports to British subjects; but as the principle on which the restriction is placed on the French agents would seem to be the very rational one, that they have no means of ascertaining whether the applicants for passports are persons to whom passports should be granted, that principle should equally apply to relieve British subjects from the necessity of obtaining the *visa* of a French consular authority to a passport issued by the Foreign Office. Count Walewski, however, could not comply with the wishes of the Earl of Clarendon, as it would be impossible to exempt the English from a formality imposed on other nations. His excellency added, that Lord Clarendon was mistaken in supposing that the intention of the *visa* was to guarantee the respectability of the bearer of the passport. It was only a voucher for the

French authorities in France that the passport itself was genuine, for which the person giving the *visa* would be held responsible. Tables of the *visas* given were to be forwarded to the French Government every fortnight, so that the names and numbers of foreigners coming to France could be accurately known. An important addition with regard to *visas* had, however, his excellency said, been made. Permission had been given to the different French embassies and missions abroad to affix to passports what he might term a diplomatic *visa*. The *visa* has, until now, been affixed by the chancellor, a kind of consular officer attached to every mission. The diplomatic *visas* would bear a different shape from the consular, in order that they might at once be recognized, and would give facility of passage to the bearers of passports to which they were affixed, not only at the passport office, but at the custom-house. In fact, such *visas* would afford facilities for travelling not enjoyed until now; but they would only be given where the parties asking for them were well known.

In consequence of these new regulations in passports by the French Government, the following notice was issued by the Foreign Office on the 3rd February, 1858:—

“The ambassador of his Majesty the Emperor of the French having notified to the Earl of Clarendon, her Majesty’s Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, that the consul-general and other consular officers of his Imperial Majesty in the United Kingdom will no longer grant passports to other than subjects of his Imperial Majesty, notice is hereby given, that in order to facilitate the obtaining of passports by British subjects desiring to proceed to the continent, the conditions of the fifth regulation under which such passports have hitherto been issued at the Foreign Office will be extended as hereinafter described. According to that regulation passports have hitherto been granted to ‘British born subjects, or to Ionians, or to such foreigners as have become naturalized either by Act of Parliament or by a certificate of naturalization granted by the Secretary of State for the Home Department,’ who were either known to the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, or recommended to him by some person who was known to him, or upon the application of any banking firm established in London, or in any other part of the United Kingdom; but, henceforth, passports will also be granted on the recommendation of the mayor or chief magistrate of any corporate town in the United Kingdom, and also on the recommendation of any magistrate or justice of peace, such recommendation to be addressed, upon the cover, to ‘Her Majesty’s Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, *Passport Office*, Downing Street, London,’ and forwarded by post from the country; and such recommendation should be made in the form as detailed, signed and sealed by the person giving the recommendation.

“If any person so recommended be a naturalized British subject, his certificate of naturalization, with his signature subscribed to the oath printed on the third page of his certificate, must be forwarded with the application for his passport.

“The passport so applied for will be transmitted by return of post, if possible, to the mayor, chief magistrate, magistrate, or justice of the peace,

who may have given the recommendation, to be delivered by him to the party; and if the passport should be required for a naturalized British subject, his certificate will be returned with the passport; but the mayor, chief magistrate, magistrate, or justice of the peace, on whose application a passport is granted to a naturalized British subject, not being a servant included in his employer's passport, will require such naturalized British subject to sign the passport in his presence. The charge on the issue of each passport, whatever number of persons may be named in it, is six shillings; and that sum must be forwarded with the application for the passport; and if the remittance be by post-office order, such order is to be made payable to the 'Chief Clerk of the Foreign Office,' at the Post-office, Charing Cross. If, however, a person recommended from the country for a passport prefers it, he may obtain his passport at the Foreign Office on the day following the receipt of the application, and pay the charge on the passport being delivered to him; but in this case, the words 'Passport will be applied for at the Foreign Office,' must be added to the letter of recommendation. The form of application heretofore adopted by banking firms will continue to be used by them.

"The general regulations for passports as now amended, are as follows:—

"1. Applications for foreign office passports must be made in writing; and addressed upon the cover to 'Her Majesty's Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, Passport Office, Downing Street, London.'

"2. The charge on the issue of a passport, whatever number of persons may be named in it, is six shillings, which sum includes five shillings stamp duty.

"3. Foreign Office passports are granted only to British-born subjects, or to Ionians, or to such foreigners as have become naturalized, either by Act of Parliament or by a certificate of naturalization granted by the Secretary of State for the Home Department. When the party is a naturalized British subject, he will be so designated in his passport; and if his certificate of naturalization be dated subsequently to the 24th of August, 1850, his passport will be marked as good for one year only; but this regulation will not preclude any person whom it affects from obtaining, at any future period, on his producing his old passport, a fresh passport for a further limited period of one year, without being required to pay a fresh charge.

"4. Passports are issued between the hours of eleven and four, on the day following that on which the application for the passport has been received at the Foreign Office.

"5. Passports are granted to persons who are either known to the Secretary of State, or recommended to him by some person who is known to him; or upon the application of any banking firm established in London, or in any other part of the United Kingdom; or upon the recommendation of the Mayor or chief magistrate of any corporate town in the United Kingdom; or of any magistrate or justice of the peace.

"6. Passports cannot be sent by the Foreign Office to a person already abroad: such person should apply to the nearest British mission or consulate.

"7. Foreign Office passports must be countersigned at the mission in London, or at some consulate in the United Kingdom of the Government of the country which the bearer of the passport intends to visit.*

* It is requisite that the bearer of every passport granted by the Foreign Office should sign his passport before he sends it to be *visa'd* at any foreign mission or consulate in

“8. A Foreign Office passport granted for one journey to a British-born subject or to an Ionian, or to a ‘naturalized British subject’ whose certificate of naturalization is dated previously to August 24, 1850, may be used for any subsequent journey, if countersigned afresh by the ministers or consuls of the countries which the bearer intends to visit: but a passport granted for one journey to a ‘naturalized British subject,’ whose certificate is dated subsequently to the 24th of August, 1850, can only be used for a subsequent journey undertaken within the period for which the passport has been originally granted.”

Inquiries were afterwards made by the Governors of Jersey and Guernsey as to whether they were authorized to issue passports to English and Jersey people desirous of proceeding to France, and her Majesty’s Government authorized the Lieutenant-Governors to do so. In communicating such resolution of the British Government to Count Walewski, Earl Cowley took the opportunity of stating that he considered that every Government had the right of making its own regulations for the issuing of passports within its own dominions, and that no foreign Government could refuse to recognize passports delivered according to those regulations. Count Walewski admitted this theory without hesitation.

On the 14th February, the Earl of Clarendon requested Earl Cowley to ascertain from the French Government whether a passport was required for landing in France where the person has no intention of proceeding to the interior, and also whether her Majesty’s consuls could grant passports to such persons to enable them to proceed to Paris or elsewhere. In answer to these inquiries, Count Walewski stated that no person whatever would be permitted to land in France without a passport, nor would a consul’s passport given to any one in that predicament be recognized. Numerous complaints having been made in consequence of these measures, the following article explanatory of the new regulations respecting passports appeared in the *Moniteur* of the 25th March, 1858:—

“Complaints have been raised against the measures which the Emperor’s Government has lately taken to regulate the issue of passports and *visas*. Nevertheless, all that has been done is to put in force again the regulations which date back to the years 1791, 1807, 1810, and 1816, and which were revised and amalgamated in 1833. These regulations are summed up in the following enactments:—

“French diplomatic and consular agents must not issue passports to their countrymen, except when the identity of the claimants is recognized and proved by the presence of two witnesses.

“These agents are forbidden to issue passports to foreigners. This is a fundamental principle which has been departed from in England. The British Government, having itself recognized the inconvenience of this mode of proceeding, has taken measures to provide that, for the future,

England; without such signature either the *visa* may be refused, or the validity of the passport questioned abroad. And travellers who may have any intention of visiting the Austrian States at any time in the course of their travels on the Continent, are particularly and earnestly advised not to quit England without having their passports *visa’d* at the Austrian mission in London: but there is no necessity for the *visa* to a Foreign Office passport of either the Prussian or Sardinian authorities in the United Kingdom.

their countrymen may no longer be obliged to have recourse to foreign agents, and may be able to procure *titres de voyage* from English authorities.

French diplomatic and consular agents have retained the power of requiring the presence of the bearers of passports for which their *visa* is necessary. This power is the evident result of the spirit of the existing legislation, but the obligation imposed by it is not absolute, and every latitude is given to the Emperor's agents, to give weight to exceptional cases; which agents, also, are authorized to *viser*, without requiring the presence of the persons interested, passports issued by the competent authorities of foreign States to their own countrymen whenever such passports shall be addressed to these agents by the Governments of such States, with a special recommendation and on their responsibility.

Finally, independently of these facilities, and in virtue of the regulations which prohibit our vice-consular agents, who are foreign subjects, in the States bordering on or neighbouring to the empire, to issue passports and *visas*, a prohibition justified by the abuses which had arisen, the Emperor's Government has already established, and proposes to establish, according to the necessities of the service, on the points near our frontier in which the streams of travellers coming into France concentrate, French consular agents, authorized to issue passports and *visas*, so as to spare travellers any inconvenient or troublesome delay.

It may be seen from the preceding brief explanations, that if the interest of public tranquillity has rendered necessary a strict return to the enforcement of the regulations, the Emperor's Government, far from extending their range, has, on the contrary, sought to remove the obstacles which might really interfere with the relations between France and foreign countries.

No. CXXVII.—PATRIOTIC FUND.

First and Second Reports of the Royal Commissioners of the Patriotic Fund.
26th March, 1858. (163.)

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.*]

THE Commission was issued on the 7th of October, 1854, to His Royal Highness Prince Albert, the Duke of Newcastle, Duke of Wellington, Lord Seymour, Earl of Derby, Earl of Aberdeen, Earl of Shaftesbury, Earl of Hardwicke, Earl of Chichester, Earl Nelson, Earl Grey, Viscount Palmerston, Viscount Combermere, Viscount Hardinge, Baron Rokeby, Baron Colchester, Baron Panmure, Baron Seaton, Baron St. Leonards, Baron Raglan, Sidney Herbert, James Lindsay, Sir James Robert George Graham, Henry Thomas Lowry Corry, Edward Ellice, Robert Vernon Smith, Sir John Somerset Pakington, Sir Robert Throckmorton, Sir William Parker, Sir Thomas Byam Martin, Sir John Fox Burgoyne, Sir Hew Dalrymple Ross, Lord Mayor of our city of London, Joseph Hume, Thomas Baring, John Gellibrand Hubbard, John Wilson Patten, Samuel Morton Peto, Edward Burke Roche, and John Ball.

Having recited that many were desirous to testify their loyalty to the
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Queen by a generous benevolence towards the widows and orphans of those soldiers, sailors, and marines who have been killed, or who may die amidst the ravages and casualties of war, and that it was expedient to take measures for safe custody and application of funds, the Commissioners were instructed to make full and diligent inquiry into the best mode of aiding the loyalty and benevolence of her Majesty's subjects, and of ascertaining the means by which the gifts, subscriptions, and contributions can be best applied. On the 10th May, 1855, the Commissioners made their first report:—

The unprecedented amount which in the short space of six months has been contributed in answer to that appeal, is a most satisfactory proof of the eagerness with which your Majesty's subjects have embraced an occasion of testifying at once their loyal support of the great contest in which our country is engaged, and their recognition of the claims of those gallant men who may unhappily fall in it. A sum exceeding a million sterling has now been paid into the Bank of England to our account. Every class of the community has contributed liberally to the Fund. On the one hand, the nobility, the gentry, the great corporate mercantile bodies of the kingdom, have proportioned their donations to the greatness of the occasion, and to their large share of the blessings bestowed by Providence upon this favoured land. On the other, we have found that the brilliant deeds of our countrymen in arms have awakened equal sympathy in every class of humble life, even among those whose generous impulses can be gratified only at the cost of privation and self-denial. Contributions of large amount have been received from agricultural districts and rural parishes, swelled by the spontaneous bounty of the peasantry; artisans, domestic servants, workpeople, labourers, individually and in associations, have felt a patriotic pride and a generous satisfaction in answering their Sovereign's appeal. In one striking instance, the inmates of the Reformatory Asylum, Smith Street, Westminster, having literally nothing of their own to give, denied themselves a meal, that its value might be offered as their gift. We deem it a fact deserving your Majesty's notice, that even the children of the poorer classes have very generally contributed their "mite" to enlarge the amount of the nation's bounty.

It will be our duty hereafter to submit to your Majesty as detailed a statement as may be practicable of the sources from which the Patriotic Fund has been derived. Your Majesty will be gratified to hear that the contributions have not been confined to Great Britain or even to your Majesty's subjects. Very large sums have been received from British residents abroad. Your Majesty's representatives in the colonies, acting as Commissioners in aid, have been warmly seconded by the loyal feelings of your Majesty's colonial subjects, in proof of which we can point to magnificent contributions from India, from the North American Colonies, from Australia, and in fact from nearly every British possession; amongst other contributions may be mentioned that of the Six Nation Indians, who have subscribed the sum of 100*l*. Your Majesty's consuls-general, consuls, and other influential British subjects also, in all parts of the world, have manifested a laudable zeal in contributing themselves, and in encouraging and collecting contributions to the national Fund. We have peculiar pleasure in reporting to your Majesty that the natives of many foreign countries also have spontaneously and largely contributed, and have accompanied their

donations with kind expressions of sympathy for the sufferers, and testimony to their sense of the justice of the war in which your Majesty and Allies are engaged.

The Commissioners reported that the total number of widows who had actually applied for relief up to the 10th May, 1855, was 1,487, together with 1,802 children. Upon the subject of investment the Commissioners reported as follows:—

In the enumeration of the benevolent objects proposed by your Majesty's Royal Commission, a prominent place is given to the all-important boon of education. To this object we have directed our careful attention. In the great uncertainty which must prevail for some time to come as to the number of orphan children of any class who may look to us for protection, it would be premature to originate any large or general measure. In many cases benevolent individuals have undertaken the charge and education of orphan children. Some of the principal orphan asylums have offered to provide for others; and our executive and finance committee has given a general notice that it will defray the small weekly charge incurred by sending any of the children of mothers relieved from the Fund to the ordinary schools of their localities, having due regard to the religious opinions of the children or of their parents. We have further authorized this committee to place orphans for education in any asylum, industrial school, or other establishment for receiving orphans or destitute children, which offers itself in their neighbourhood; but for the present we have thought it desirable not to authorize the committee to purchase perpetual rights of presentation, or to endow or enlarge any such establishments.

The receipts between the 16th October, 1854, and the 5th May, 1855, amounted to 989,921*l.*, and of bills not then due, 61,524*l.*, making a total of 1,051,445*l.*

On the 9th February, 1858, the Commissioners made their second report, in which, after alluding to the increase of the sum contributed to 1,453,045*l.*, they stated the modes proposed for the investment of the fund to the permanent benefit of the two services. They had decided to establish and endow an institution for the education of 300 daughters of soldiers, sailors, and marines. Her Majesty was graciously pleased to mark her approbation of this arrangement by laying the first stone of The Royal Victoria Patriotic Asylum. They have also set apart a sum of money for the establishment of a similar institution for sons of soldiers, sailors, and marines, but on a more limited scale, as they are already partially provided for by the existing Royal Asylums at Greenwich, Chelsea, and Kilmainham. They also purchased the right of a limited number of presentations to the following institutions, established for the sole benefit of the two military services. The under-mentioned sums have been thus appropriated, viz.:—25,000*l.* Wellington College, for maintenance and education of sons of military officers, "without regard to their religious persuasions or creed." 3,000*l.* Cambridge Asylum, for maintenance of widows of non-commissioned officers and privates.

2,500*l.* each to the Naval and Military Schools of Portsmouth and Plymouth, for education of children of soldiers, sailors, and marines, who are provided with dinner. 5,000*l.* Royal Naval Female School, for maintenance and education of daughters of naval officers, who are also furnished with books.

The total number of the widows of the primary class who had actually applied for relief up to the latest return, is 3,156; and in connection with them were 3,840 children, exclusive of 166 orphans who had lost both parents. Of the above 44 widows, 192 children, and 3 orphans have died since they were placed on the list.

The total number of the second class, that of officers' widows and children, in the receipt of allowances from this fund, is 351; of whom are widows 122, children 217, and orphans who have lost both parents 127.

The Commissioners concluded their report by advertng to certain charges made against them of partiality on religious grounds, in the fulfilment of their trust, alleging that there was not the slightest ground for this serious imputation.

STATEMENT of AMOUNT of PATRIOTIC FUND to 31st December, 1857,
showing Sources whence received.

	£	s.	d.
ENGLAND and WALES (including Channel Islands)	884,990	17	5
IRELAND	60,046	11	9
SCOTLAND	149,746	12	2
Army, Navy, Dockyards, Hospitals, Civil Service, Police, &c., at home and abroad, as embodied in distinct subscription lists	12,099	8	2
BRITISH POSSESSIONS, viz.—	£	s.	d.
Antigua	128	5	5
Australia, viz.:—	£	s.	d.
New South Wales	64,916	6	6
South Australia	6,297	0	0
Tasmania	28,375	5	7
Victoria	47,711	10	3
West Australia	818	4	2
	148,118	6	6
Bahamas	449	11	6
Barbadoes	496	14	2
Bermuda	353	17	9
Canada	28,078	9	2
Cape of Good Hope	9,520	4	8
Ceylon	4,584	6	1
Dominica	35	7	3
Gibraltar	1,508	13	1
Gold Coast	119	2	6
Grenada	176	8	2
Guiana, British	4,564	13	8
Honduras	665	18	6
Hong Kong	2,239	1	1
India, viz.:—	£	s.	d.
Calcutta	43,768	11	9
Bombay	21,000	0	0
Madras	16,388	1	10
	81,156	13	7
Jamaica	1,239	15	4
Labuan	34	19	8
Long Island and Rum Cay	3	2	6
Carried forward	283,473	10	7
	1,106,883	9	6

		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Brought forward	...	283,473	10	7	1,106,883	9	6
Malacca	...	112	2	5			
Malta (including subscriptions from Tunis and Bengazy)	...	793	16	3			
Mauritius	...	1,698	0	7			
Nevis	...	15	16	1			
New Brunswick	...	7,294	11	11			
Newfoundland	...	1,961	19	0			
New Zealand	...	8,706	6	5			
Nova Scotia	...	5,472	10	4			
Prince Edward's Island	...	2,094	7	0			
Prince of Wales's Island (Penang)	...	870	6	2			
Seychelles	...	90	0	0			
Sierra Leone	...	164	3	0			
Singapore	...	734	18	10			
St. Christopher	...	71	10	5			
St. Helena	...	206	1	0			
St. Lucia	...	71	9	4			
St. Vincent	...	137	4	8			
Tortola (Virgin Islands)	...	3	0	0			
Trinidad	...	1,178	2	9			
Turks and Caicos Islands	...	180	7	5			
Vancouver's Island	...	60	1	6			
Total from British Possessions	...				315,389	15	8
British residents and others in foreign countries	...				30,771	17	11
					£1,453,045	3	1

No. CXXVIII.—LAND TRANSPORT CORPS.

Report from the Select Committee appointed to inquire into the justice of the Complaints of the Officers of the Land Transport Corps, as set forth in their Petition presented on the 11th day of August, 1857, alleging that they had not received the rate of Half-Pay which they state they were entitled to claim. (401.)

THE Committee was appointed on the 26th April, 1858, and it consisted of General Codrington, Colonel North, Mr. Mowbray, Lord Adolphus Vane Tempest, Mr. Roebuck, Mr. Kingscote, Lord John Hay, Mr. Patrick O'Brien, Mr. Thomas Duncombe, Mr. Cowan, Captain Sturt, Lord Claud Hamilton, and Sir John Ramsden. The Committee examined several captains and lieutenants, and reported as follows:—

The petitioners complained that on the reduction of the corps to which they belonged, they had not received the rate of half-pay, which, as officers, having been duly appointed in the *London Gazette*, and holding commissions signed by her Majesty, they considered they were entitled to claim. Some of these gentlemen advanced a complaint before your committee, that they had not received the proper amount of outfit allowance, to which, as cavalry officers, they considered themselves entitled. Your Committee find that the petitioners were officers of her Majesty's land forces, holding commissions signed by her Majesty, similar to those held by other officers of the regular forces, and that such commissions were duly published in the *London Gazette*. Your Committee find that the Land Transport Corps was established as a non-purchasing corps; but your Committee doubt whether this condition was made known to the officers before they accepted their commissions. Your Committee find that appointments to lieutenancies in the Military Train were offered to some of the officers holding the grade of

captains in the late Land Transport Corps, which were accepted in some instances and refused in others. From evidence before your Committee, it appears that the course of offering lower grade to that previously held is anomalous and exceptional.

Your Committee find that the officers of the Land Transport Corps who appeared before them consisted of two classes: those who were appointed from the rank of non-commissioned officers, and those who obtained their appointments from civil situations. With regard to the first class named, your Committee have received evidence that in some cases commissions in the Land Transport Corps were given as rewards for distinguished conduct, and in other cases those officers were men of acknowledged good service; and that such commissions were considered equivalent to commissions in the army. In the case of artillery non-commissioned officers, of which class there are a large proportion, they were invited to enter the Land Transport Corps, on account of their previous knowledge in matters relating to horses, waggons, and carts; further, your Committee were informed by Lord Panmure that he considered a non-commissioned officer, having received his commission in the Land Transport Corps, would have been allowed to dispose of the same by sale, subject to the approval of the Secretary of State for War, and the regulations of the service.

With regard to the second class, your Committee find that many gentlemen, actuated by the hope of advancement, and by a laudable desire to serve their country, gave up at the time of the war civil situations of fair emolument to enter as officers in this corps. On the return of the troops at the close of the late war, it was notified to the officers of the Land Transport Corps, in an order from Horsefield Barracks, February 26, 1857, that their services, with the exception of nineteen officers named in the margin of the order (some of whom have since received fresh appointments), were dispensed with. Communications were then received by these gentlemen from the army agent, informing them that a warrant was in preparation to place them on a special rate of half-pay. Those who had risen from the ranks on the following scale:—captains, 5*s.*; lieutenants, 3*s.* 6*d.*; cornets, 3*s.* Such rates to be permanent. Your Committee had evidence before them that the ordinary rates payable under the warrant to officers having served the specified time, are, by the regulations,—captains, 7*s.* 6*d.*; lieutenants, 4*s.* 8*d.*; cornets, 3*s.* 6*d.* With regard to the rate of half-pay granted to those officers who came from civil situations, they were also informed by the army agent that they would be granted the full rate, viz. captains, 7*s.* 6*d.*; lieutenants, 4*s.* 8*d.*; cornets, 3*s.* 6*d.*; but only for a temporary period, ranging from two to three years.

It was proved to your Committee that remonstrances were made to the War Department against this arrangement, by those officers who had risen from the ranks, on the ground of the exceptional nature of this reduced rate of half-pay granted them; and on the part of those who came from civil life, on the ground of its temporary character, and the fact that they had given up good situations to enter the army; the circumstance that by this arrangement they would find themselves penniless at the end of a short period was strongly advanced by them.

The hardships complained of, and the justice of these complaints, are especially illustrated in the case of Captain M'Gorrrery, who after thirty-one years' service, two of them as an officer, receives by the rate allowed him only 2*s.* 6*d.* a day more than he would have been entitled to had he

remained in the artillery. In that corps he had held for seven years and a half the rank of sergeant-major of field batteries, and he is now called on to maintain himself and family, in the advanced social position in which his commission has placed him, upon so small an increase as 2*s.* 6*d.* per diem.

The case of Captain Hilliker, an officer with twenty-three years' distinguished service, is detailed in a letter addressed to Lord Panmure, and printed. Your Committee wish particularly to call attention to it as illustrative of the general bearing of these officers' pecuniary position, and the hardship inflicted on them by placing them in the situation of commissioned officers, without affording them, when reduced, adequate means of maintaining their new position.

A remarkable illustration of the hardship entailed upon those appointed to commissions from civil life, is afforded by the case of Captain Hudson, who gave up a lucrative situation of about 500*l.* a year in the Ordnance Department at the Cape of Good Hope. This officer had served in the field in the Kafir wars of 1846, 1847, 1851, 1852, and 1853; and he alleges that, by entering the Land Transport Corps as an officer, he lost his claim to a superannuation allowance of about 100*l.* a year, to which he would have been entitled for his civil services; he obtained the position of captain, and is now in receipt of 7*s.* 6*d.* per diem for a term of three years, at the expiration of which time this provision will cease.

There is also a case which the war authorities have considered as of an exceptional character, in the person of Captain Stevens, who, though he had formerly served in the army, had left it by purchasing his discharge some time before the war. This gentleman entered first as a private in the Land Transport Corps, passed through the grades of a non-commissioned officer, and was promoted to be a captain; this gentleman claims, and it appears to your Committee justly, to be considered as coming from the ranks; the War Department has refused so to consider him, and denies his rank, which your Committee are of opinion, in this case, as in all similar cases, cannot with justice be disputed. There is another class which have advanced their claims before your Committee, namely, those officers who were given commissions from the Militia into the Land Transport Corps, but your Committee think it unnecessary to make especial reference to their case, as being similar to that of the officers generally.

Your Committee have thus shortly brought to your notice the leading points in the case of the petitioners. It was contended, on the part of the War Department, that by the warrant, in their interpretation, these gentlemen had no claim to any permanent half-pay, as they had not qualified according to the provisions of the warrant of 1854, which, in clause 41, states that an officer actually must have done duty in some regiment or corps, or in some other military capacity in the public service, for a period of at least three years, to entitle him to be placed on half-pay on reduction. The War Department have interpreted this as requiring three years' *bond fide* service as a commissioned officer in order to entitle an officer to a claim for half-pay, and did not consider that service performed as a non-commissioned officer could properly come under the head of "some other military capacity."

Your Committee would here remark on the injurious effect of this clause and its interpretation on the position of those meritorious officers, who had rendered good or distinguished service to their country for a long period of years. In some cases these officers were within a few months of the

required three years' service as officers; they pressed to be employed, and allowed to complete the necessary period, but no opportunity was afforded them to do so. Your Committee find, that in the case of paymasters and quartermasters, previous service as a non-commissioned officer is considered, and allowed by the terms of the warrant of 1854, and your Committee are of opinion that it would be but just that, in all cases of non-commissioned officers being promoted to commissions, their former services should be fairly considered. Lord Panmure stated to your Committee that, as it was not in his power, by the terms of the warrant of 1854, to grant permanent half-pay to those officers, he had taken their case into consideration, and, with a view to relieve the hardship which he considered would be done to those officers by a rigid adherence to the regulation, had, in a communication to the Treasury, proposed the reduced permanent allowance which was sanctioned by the Treasury, and which those officers now receive. While your Committee are not able to say that under the warrant the officers have a legal claim to the regular rate of half-pay, they recommend that steps should be taken to grant to both classes the regular rates of permanent half-pay, according to the rank of their commission. Your Committee also recommend that the authorities of the War Department should consider those cases of the officers of the Land Transport Corps who state that they did receive the proper outfit allowance as cavalry officers.

Your Committee wish to call your attention to the testimonials given in by these officers, as showing the character of these gentlemen, all of them in the highest terms of commendation; most of these officers served for many years; many of them received honorary distinctions; many were wounded; and all exhibited an earnest desire to serve their country in a time of great difficulty and emergency.

Your Committee think it right to bring to your notice the case of some officers promoted by general orders in the Crimea "pending her Majesty's pleasure." The war came to a close, the promotion has not been confirmed, and they have not been given the rank which would entitle them to the half-pay of that superior grade. Your Committee hope that the case of those officers will be taken into consideration by the War Department.

Your Committee, therefore, anxiously hope that the claim of the petitioners may be granted without further delay; and your Committee cannot but express their regret that those requests should not have been earlier complied with, and that so deserving a class should not have been more generously acted by.

Your Committee, in conclusion, beg to call the attention of the House to the fact, that many of these officers had not only long but distinguished war service; their experience, particularly of those from the cavalry and artillery, was most valuable; and at a time of pressure, when the effective state of the Land Transport Corps was essential for the ensuing campaign, it was an honourable ambition and hope which induced them to accept commissions; and if they cannot have full-pay employment, it would be a subject of regret to your Committee that a reward given in the future interest of the army on active service should have placed such men in a position of comparative disadvantage; for there is little doubt that if pensioned as the higher class of non-commissioned officers, they would have been in a more advantageous situation as to money and possible employment than when placed under the necessity of keeping up the rank of officers and gentlemen upon their present reduced allowance.

No. CXXIV.—WILLIAM HENRY BARBER.

Report from the Select Committee appointed to inquire into the Allegations contained in the Petition of William Henry Barber, presented on the 27th day of April last, and to consider and report whether any, and what step, should be taken in reference thereto. (397.)

THE Committee was nominated on the 15th June, 1858, and it consisted of Lord Hotham, Viscount Goderich, Sir John Trollope, Messrs. Brady, Hardy, Milner Gibson, Bright, Wilson, Crossley, Collier, Adams, Massey, Arthur Mills, Cobbett, and Yorke.

On the 7th of June, 1858, the Committee made the following report:—

Your Committee have inquired carefully into the allegations of the petition, and find them to have been substantially proved.

Your Committee have not entered upon the consideration of the question whether, in the present or like cases, pecuniary compensation should be granted, the rules and practice of the House precluding them from recommending any grant of public money. Your Committee cannot, however, forbear to state, that the facts presented to their notice in respect to the conviction of Mr. Barber, to the sufferings he endured during the time his sentence was being carried out in Norfolk Island, and to his subsequent exculpation from the charge on which he was convicted, are so peculiar as to render his case exceptional; and your Committee desire to express their opinion that Mr. Barber has strong claims on the favourable consideration of the Crown.

The Committee examined the following witnesses:—Mr. William Henry Barber, Major-General Joseph Childs, Rev. Thomas George Rogers, John William Smith, C.B., and Robert Peckham.

The evidence of Mr. Barber was to the effect that he had been in practice for eight years, from 1836 to 1844, and had served his articles with Messrs. Scoones of Tunbridge, with whom he continued seventeen years. In 1843 he was apprehended and committed for trial, and in the April following he was indicted by the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt, on the charge of having uttered certain forged documents, viz. three wills, an administration bond, and a bond given on the grant of letters of administration, knowing them to be forged. Bail was refused for him, and he was kept in prison four months. The indictment related to a transaction occurring in four different years. The trial took place in April, 1844, and Joseph Fletcher, a retired surgeon, was indicted with him. Fletcher was worth at the time 20,000*l*. There were four different frauds; Fletcher was concerned in each of those frauds, and he was compelled to bring a different person to Barber in each case, as false personators. These were Mrs. Dorey, Mr. Sanders, Mrs. Sanders, and a Griffin, who was admitted as Queen's evidence. Barber's counsel were Serjeant Wilkins and Mr. Parry. Mr. Barber applied to Baron Gurney to be tried separately, but this was refused, and it was opposed by the Commissioners of the Treasury on the ground that it would be quite impossible for Barber to

disprove that he was an accomplice as alleged, without the evidence of the parties under whose instructions he had acted, who, in fact, had planned and perpetrated the frauds. The Attorney-General was Sir Frederick Pollock. The trials lasted ten days. On the first trial Mr. Barber was acquitted. The second came on immediately after, and he was convicted.

The facts in Slack's case were as follow:—A sum of 3,500*l.* in the Consols had gone to the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt. Fletcher pretended to have been inquiring, to find out the real owners of that property, and some communication took place with parties who, from the information they themselves furnished, did not appear to be the owners. Fletcher pursued his inquiries, and he eventually professed to have discovered the true owners. Apparently, there was not the smallest doubt of it, for the evidence was conclusive if genuine; but it turned out the evidence was forged. The party brought forward a will, which, if genuine, would have been conclusive; that will turned out to be a forgery. Mr. Barber acted in the usual way on the party being introduced to him. He had a copy of the will made by one of the clerks in his own office; he sent the will downstairs for that purpose, and when that was done he went with the lady, who was introduced to him by Fletcher as a most respectable person. She was in deep mourning. He went with her to his proctor; the will was then proved, and that was the act upon which he was indicted for uttering a forged will. Then, after about the usual time for proving the will, the probate was forwarded to them: it was then lodged in the Bank of England; the Bank took the usual time which they take in cases of unclaimed dividends, which is about a fortnight; they scrutinized the documents, they examined into the claim, and at the end of that time they notified to them that they were perfectly satisfied, and the claimant was at liberty to deal with the stock whenever she thought proper. Accordingly, it was received by those parties. Mr. Barber, Fletcher, and Mrs. Dorey were alike convicted, but Sanders was not convicted; the course which was taken in respect to him was this—the prosecution had him entirely in their hands, because he had nothing to hope for except from their mercy, which he and his wife obtained. After the trial had taken place, he pleaded guilty to the charge in one of the two other cases, and therefore they did not proceed against him. The sentence upon Mr. Barber was transportation for life; that upon Fletcher the same. The sentence on Sanders was only seven years' transportation upon the one indictment to which he had pleaded guilty, though he had been the chief agent in all the frauds. The sentence upon Mrs. Dorey was two years' imprisonment, and upon Mrs. Sanders two years' imprisonment. In the trial Mr. Barber was very anxious to get his partner to give evidence, but he was frightened out of his wits, and could not be found. Upon the sentence being passed, it was in due course carried into execution.

Mr. Barber remained about a week in Newgate. He was then sent to

Milbank; he was chained by the leg to a doubly convicted felon, and in that state he was sent to Milbank. On his arrival there he was kept in a solitary cell for two months. At the end of that time he was removed on board a convict ship, and he was passed down by a boat from Milbank to Woolwich; there he was handcuffed and chained to half-a-dozen other men, and in that condition he was taken on board the convict ship at Woolwich. After a day or two the chains were taken off; then, after another day or two, they were put on again, and after about six days lying at Woolwich the voyage commenced. They went a considerable distance out to sea heavily chained by the leg, and keeping on those chains night and day his leg became excoriated by the pressure on the ankles; and from the awkwardness of getting into the hammock with those chains on, they hurt him at that time very much. The voyage lasted four months.

There were 220 convicts on board; they were divided into messes, according as they happened to go down into the hold; as they happened to go down they were chalked on the back and divided into messes of eight, and those eight men formed one mess, sitting round a sort of table for the rest of the voyage. On his being landed upon the island, Mr. Barber was put into a barrack where there were 220 other prisoners, and in consequence of the great heat of the climate, and the sudden change in the diet, he, with about 50 others of the ship's company, was invalided. They were all examined by the medical officer, and Mr. Barber and others were ordered not to go to work for that day; they were desired to go into what is called the lumber-yard. Major Childs, the commandant (that was his first interview with the commandant), coming down to the station, inquired about the men who had arrived by the *Agincourt*, and on hearing there were a great many who had not gone to work, he desired to see them, and as he stood by the principal office near the gateway of the barrack-yard, he caused about 40 or 50 of the convicts to pass by him in single file. About 10 of the men had passed by him unnoticed. When Mr. Barber came up, he of course lifted his cap off his head respectfully to him, and the Major immediately said, "Let this man's hair be cut." Mr. Barber's hair had been cut the very day before, as all the men's had when they arrived on the island. The Major then asked, "How is it you have not gone to work?" Mr. Barber said, "I was ordered not to go to work, sir." "Hold your tongue, sir! go in, sir!—I will see to you, Mr. Barber; I will see after you." Immediately on the arrival of Mr. Barber, two applications were made on his behalf for an appointment as clerk, but they were refused.

A certain Mr. Rogers wanted him to be his servant, but that also was refused, and instead of it Mr. Barber was ordered to be a wardsman. There are three stations on Norfolk Island, one called the "Settlement," another called the "Cascades," and another called "Longridge;" they are equidistant, about three miles; in the Settlement is a barrack, which

will receive about 200 inmates. The prisoners are locked in that dormitory from about dusk at night until daylight in the morning; there is no outlet whatever, and, therefore, tubs are placed in the avenue between the tiers of sleeping berths, for their use; the duty of a wardman being to keep these men in order at night; to prevent battles taking place between them, and to prevent other misconduct. If any disturbance takes place, the wardman is held responsible for it: it is considered he ought to have prevented it. He is, in fact, placed in peculiar jeopardy; if he allow such disturbances to take place, he may be punished by being flogged; if he interfere, he may very likely be killed, or have an eye knocked out, or suffer some other personal violence from the savages (for they are no less) who are located there; many being murderers, many being there for unnatural crimes, and a great many for burglaries, and other offences of the deepest dye.

In the morning Mr. Barber's duty was to take those tubs which were on the first floor, as it might be called, downstairs through the barrack-yard, before all the men, and before several of the prisoners who had come out in the ship with him, who were already comfortably dressed, perfectly clean, having nothing whatever to do, but just to marshal the men and write in the office. He had to take those tubs before the officers and prison clerks, who stood at the door, empty them in the sea, thoroughly clean them out, and take them back; and then he had to scour the ward on his hands and knees, arrange all the hammocks of the men, and if all that had not been done to their satisfaction, he was liable, and very frequently did receive violent abuse and threats for not having adjusted a man's hammock just according to his taste, or if he had not dealt with the tubs as he fancied they ought to be dealt with.

At the end of one year and four months Mr. Barber was sent to work in the fields. There he had to break up the ground with a very heavy hoe; each man in the gang had the same task. He was frequently in a broiling sun, and, at other times, exposed to a tropical rain. Now he was as wet as if he had come through a river, and in an hour after that he was dried up to a cinder.

Thus Mr. Barber was wardman and in hospital sixteen months, and he was at field labour about four months; at the end of that time he was put into an office in the agricultural department. Whilst Mr. Barber was so dealt with, Fletcher, who was transported with him, was employed as a medical dispenser, and had a hut to himself, with superior bedding and rations. After Mr. Barber went into the office of the Superintendent of Agriculture, he employed part of his time in endeavouring to get proofs of his innocence; but when that came to the knowledge of Major Childs, he immediately ordered the constable of the island to seize all Mr. Barber's papers, and even writing materials were forbidden to him. After having remained in Norfolk Island two years and four months, an order came to remove all the new prisoners to Van Diemen's Land, and there Mr. Barber

was sent; but two days after his arrival he heard that a conditional pardon was received for him.

On receiving information that a conditional pardon had arrived at Hobart Town, Mr. Barber was told, "You are now at liberty." The superintendent of the station said, "You must give in your prison clothing." Mr. Barber said, "What clothes am I to travel in? Are no instructions given by the Government as to my getting away? I have not a single article of clothing." The superintendent said, "There are no orders about that; you will have to give in your prison clothing; there are no orders about any other clothing." Mr. Barber: "How am I to travel? I cannot leave without some clothes." Mr. Barber was obliged to beg amongst the prisoners, and one or two free persons who were on the island, for little articles of clothing, and the superintendent gave him one or two articles of old clothing. He got covered in the best way he could; it was rather a motley attire. He then got to Hobart Town, and he first went and applied for the conditional pardon, which was delivered to him. On his arrival there he also applied for the papers that had been taken from him at Norfolk Island, and then certain papers were returned to him; but many papers of considerable importance were not amongst them. He inquired with reference to some letters that had not been sent, and after some delay, and a good deal of demur, it was admitted there were letters in the office, and they were ultimately handed over to him.

Then Mr. Barber was entirely destitute at Hobart Town; he did not know a person in the place, except one or two who had known him in Norfolk Island; one happened to be the chaplain to the magistrates (Mr. Rogers), who had been in the island; he showed him great kindness. Mr. Barber introduced himself to the Lieutenant-Governor (Sir W. Denison), who headed a subscription at Hobart Town; and by that means he got to Sydney. He there introduced himself to the Chief Justice, and other principal persons of the place; stated his case; an inquiry was instituted by the judges and lawyers of Sydney; they had before them all the evidence upon which he was tried—every word of it; and the confessions which had been made since, and the report of the examinations of Fletcher, which had taken place in Norfolk Island and elsewhere; and that resulted in a report quite favourable to him, and stating it was beyond a doubt, that if he had had a separate trial, he must have been acquitted.

After that report was published, there was a subscription entered into at Sydney, which enabled him to proceed on his way homeward. He could not get a ship straight to France; he had only a conditional pardon, and, therefore, he could not take a ship which was coming to England, and he could not find any ship that would undertake to land him at Boulogne—they would lose the insurance; so that he was obliged to take a very circuitous route to go to France. He got a passage in a ship to Hong Kong, and from thence he got a passage in a ship to Madras.

At Madras he availed himself of letters of introduction he had from the

first people in Sydney to the judges and the military secretary to the governor there, Colonel Browne, who kindly received him in his house, and he stayed with him about a month. During that time a subscription was made for Mr. Barber, and he was able to pursue his voyage homeward. He came overland, and at length got to Paris. On arriving at Paris, he introduced himself to Lord Normanby, and after a lapse of a few weeks his lordship sent for him, said he had read his papers, and added, that he had had a good deal of experience of the criminal law as Secretary of State in England, and as Secretary for Ireland, but he had never met with a case which he thought so remarkable or so hard as his; and he said he would certainly communicate with the home Government with regard to it. His lordship kept his word; as soon as the session was over, he managed to secure the attention of the Government to Mr. Barber's case, and in November, 1848, whilst he was at Paris, he received a free pardon, upon which he came straight home.

The pardon was granted on the facts which had transpired since the trial; those facts were the confessions which had been made, chiefly by Fletcher, and by Sanders, who was his principal confederate.

No. CXXV.—EXPIRING LAWS.

Report from the Committee appointed to inquire what temporary Laws of a public and general nature were in force on the 1st of January, 1858, and what Laws of the like nature expired between the time to which the last Report on the subject was made up to the said 1st day of January; and also, which of the said Laws in force on the said 1st day of January, 1858, are limited to expire at particular periods, or in consequence of any contingent public event. (373.)

THE Committee was appointed on the 22nd June, 1858, and it consisted of Mr. Hamilton, Mr. Fitzroy, Mr. Attorney-General, Mr. Solicitor-General, Mr. Adderley, Mr. Cowper, Sir William Joliffe, General Peel, Mr. William Williams, Lord Naas, Lord John Manners, and Mr. Hardy.

The Committee reported that there were 57 temporary laws in force on the 1st January, 1858, on the following subjects:—Bank of England Corporation, Bank of England Privileges, Bank of Ireland, Foreign Trade with the United States of America and Portugal, Highland Roads and Bridges (Scotland), Coal Trade (Port of London), West India Relief, East India Company's Dividend; Linen, Hempen, Cotton, and other Manufactures (Ireland); Civil List Prisons (Scotland), Unlawful Oaths (Ireland), Poor Rates, Stock-in-Trade Exemption, Loan Societies, Survey of Great Britain, Highway Rates, Lunatic Asylums; Apprehension of Offenders, France, Portugal, America; Courts-Martial (East India), Duchy of Cornwall, Poor Laws (Ireland), Ecclesiastical Jurisdiction, Crime and Outrage (Ireland), County Cess (Ireland), Naval Medical Supplemental Fund Society, Sheep

and Cattle Diseased, Poor Law Union Charges, Savings Banks (Ireland), Incumbered Estates (Ireland), Alterations in Pleadings, Copyhold Inclosure and Tithe Commission, Railway Acts (Ireland), Episcopal and Capitular Estate Management, Income Tax, Insurance on Lives, Abatement of Income Tax, Charitable Trust Acts, Oxford University, Public Health, Corrupt Practices Prevention Act (1854), Incumbered Estates (West Indies), Army Service Act Amendment, Treasurers of Counties, Coal-Mines Inspectors, Union of Contiguous Benefices, Mutiny Acts (Marine and Army), Turnpike Acts (Ireland), Cambridge University, Indemnity Offices, &c., Militia Ballots Suspension, Turnpike Acts, Customs and Excise Duties, Militia Pay and Militia Embodying.

From the 1st April, 1857, to the 1st January, 1858, one Act expired relating to Spirits (Ireland).

No. CXXXVI.—PRIVATE BILLS.

Report from the Committee appointed to inquire into the present system of proceedings in Parliament on Private Bills, and to consider whether any improvement can be effected to regulate and facilitate such Legislation, and diminish its Expense. (458 L.)

THE Committee was appointed on the 18th June, 1858, and it consisted of the Dukes of Somerset and Newcastle, the Earls of Doncaster, Stanhope, Graham, Romney, Powis, Grey, and Granville, Viscounts Hutchinson and Eversley, Lords Wodehouse, Redesdale, Somerhill, Portman, Stanley of Alderley, and Belper.

The Committee examined Mr. Thomas Erskine May, clerk assistant of the House of Commons; and Colonel Wilson Patten, M.P., chairman of standing orders; Mr. William Blamire, of the Inclosure Commission; Mr. Charles Edward Lefroy, taxing officer to the House of Commons; Mr. Bartholomew Samuel Rowley Adam, principal clerk for private bills; Mr. George Prett, parliamentary agent; Mr. Charles Evan Thomas, parliamentary agent; Mr. Thomas Coates, parliamentary agent; Mr. John Swift, private business; Mr. Robert Paxter, solicitor; Sir John George Shaw Lefevre; and Mr. James Booth, secretary to the Board of Trade.

On the 16th July, 1858, the Committee reported as follows:—

That the Committee have met, and considered the subject-matter referred to them, and have examined several witnesses in relation thereto.

Important suggestions have been made in a communication submitted to the Committee by one of its members, and in the evidence of some of the witnesses, as to the substitution of a new tribunal, and as to extensive alterations in the present system of private bill legislation; but although there are many valuable observations contained in these communications well deserving of the attention of Parliament, the Committee have deemed it more expedient to confine themselves to the consideration of what were the best practical amendments they could recommend in the present system of pro-

cedure in Parliament on private bills, without entertaining the larger question of an entire alteration in the existing system, and have accordingly agreed to the following resolutions:—

That all standing orders, except such orders as apply especially to any bill on coming up from the House of Commons, be proved before examiners previous to introduction of bill into Parliament, and that the decision of the examiners, upon compliance or non-compliance with standing orders, be final.

That in cases of non-compliance with standing orders, any memorial, praying that such standing orders may be dispensed with, shall be presented to the examiners within one week after their decision; and that the examiners shall forward the same with the certificate to the clerk of the Parliaments, to be laid before the Standing Order Committee, who shall consider such memorial, and determine the matter referred to them forthwith.

That in all cases of opposed private bills, in which no parties shall have appeared on the petitions against such bills, or having appeared shall have withdrawn their opposition, before the evidence of the promoters shall have been commenced, the committees on such bills shall forthwith refer them back, with a statement of the facts, to the Chairman of Committees, to be dealt with by him as if originally unopposed.

That questions of *locus standi* be referred to a committee appointed for the consideration of such questions.

That subscription contracts and declarations shall be discontinued, but deposits shall be made in all cases where such subscription contracts and declarations are now required.

That committees of both Houses on private bills have the power to administer an oath to witnesses, in order that a certificate of the evidence taken before a committee of one House on such bills may be received by the other House as sufficient in such matters as may be found expedient.

That the committee of selection appoint the chairmen of all committees appointed by them.

And the Committee have directed the minutes of evidence taken before them to be laid before your lordships.

The following items are gathered from the evidence:—

Standing Orders.—Originally the proof of compliance with the standing orders was taken before a Speaker's List Committee, consisting of about 120 members. In 1838 this system was altered, and a general committee of forty-two was substituted, which divided itself into four sub-committees, and these sub-committees determined all questions of compliance with the standing orders. In 1842, this committee of forty-two was superseded by the appointment of two examiners, who heard the cases, both opposed and unopposed, relating to the compliance with the standing orders. The examiners reported to the House, and their decision as to matters of fact was final, and it only remained for the Standing Orders Committee to determine whether the standing orders should be dispensed with or not. The present Standing Order Committee is a committee of eleven, nominated by the House at the commencement of each session. The result of the appointment of examiners, both as to the saving of time and the saving of expense to parties presenting bills before Parliament, has been entirely successful. The standing orders of the House of Lords have, since 1847, been assimilated in

almost every respect to those of the House of Commons, with great public advantage. The examiners act under the standing orders of the two Houses. They were originally appointed by the Speaker for the House of Commons, and by a vote of the House of Lords. The examiners give seven days' notice of the time appointed for hearing every case. The examiners sometimes report special circumstances which amount occasionally to an excuse for non-compliance with the standing orders. Unopposed cases are disposed of by the examiners early in the day, and without any delay. The oral evidence is all taken down, and the documents are filed. The proceedings take place in open court. Since the proof of compliance with the standing orders has been submitted to the examiners, both reduction of expense and greater uniformity of decision have been obtained. Mr. May suggested that it would be well if the examiners were empowered to determine the question of compliance or non-compliance with the standing orders as regards opposed cases in the Lords. He recommended that the Standing Orders Committee of the House of Lords should decide earlier in the session whether the parties shall be allowed to proceed or not. Mr. Prett suggested that it would be better if the examiners were judges of the fact in the Lords as well as in the Commons, providing the Standing Orders Committee of the Lords at once took cognizance of the finding of the examiners.

Counsel.—The professional usage is for a barrister to receive ten guineas a day, and five guineas as a consultation fee. It is a settled fee; no counsel can accept less. The junior gets as much as the leader. There is, besides, a retaining fee of two guineas. The brief fees depend upon the eminence of the counsel, and they vary from 1,000 guineas to ten guineas. In other courts the brief fee secures the whole service of the counsel; in parliamentary proceedings there is a brief fee which is proportioned to the importance of the case, and the amount of papers to be perused, and the other difficulties of the case; and there are, also, without reference to the importance of the case, a day fee of ten guineas and a consultation fee daily of five guineas to each counsel. The reason for this usage of giving double fees to counsel employed in parliamentary business is, that counsel are taken from their ordinary courts, and are obliged frequently to abandon their regular business, and to appear before Parliament for a few days only. Now, however, there is a large bar who practise entirely before the Houses of Parliament. Many counsel, and most of the leading counsel, confine themselves to parliamentary practice, and there is no reason for the continuance of double fees. What is, moreover, required, is a simplification and improvement of the procedure. The great evil is, that under the existing system, eighteen or twenty committees are sitting at the same time; and as it is not possible to secure the services of the counsel who are actually retained in the case, each party will have six or seven counsel retained and paid these day fees; whereas, if a better system of procedure could be adopted, two counsel would be amply sufficient. It should be observed, that the expenses

of counsel are not confined to the fees, but the briefs which the parties are to deliver to seven or eight counsel are often enormously costly. They are generally very voluminous, and the charges for the drawing and the copies for the several counsel amount to very large sums. Then each counsel has daily given to him a copy of the shorthand writer's notes, which are often exceedingly voluminous. In a case in Mr. May's recollection 130*l.* was the daily cost of copies being prepared merely of the minutes of evidence. The fees respectively paid to counsel for attendance on appeals at the bar of the House of Lords, and for practising before a committee, are as follow:— Upon an appeal the brief fee to counsel covers the first day's attendance. Upon a private bill it does not cover the first day's attendance; but the counsel has with his brief what is called the brief fee, and when he goes before the committee on the bill he has a fee of 10*l.* 10*s.* and 10*s.* 6*d.* to his clerk, called a refresher. No one can appear before a committee of the House of Lords with counsel without paying a retainer of 5*l.* 15*s.* 6*d.*, a consultation fee of 5*l.* 15*s.* 6*d.*, a brief fee at the lowest sum of 11*l.* 0*s.* 6*d.*, and an attendance of 11*l.* 0*s.* 6*d.*, making a sum of 35*l.* 13*s.* for one attendance before a committee of the House of Lords. And that is whether the counsel remains in the room and gives his real attendance and labour, or whether he merely makes an attendance nominally. And a counsel may appear on the same day in three or four committee rooms and stay a very short time in some of them, and receive three times 35*l.* for one day's work before committee. The scale of allowances upon appeal is as follows:— Fees to counsel and clerks upon appeals and writs of error:—Retainer, 2*l.* 2*s.*; clerk, 5*s.* To settle and sign petition of appeal, 2*l.* 2*s.*; clerk, 5*s.* To settle and sign case, where no extra trouble is imposed, 5*l.* 5*s.*; clerk, 10*s.* 6*d.* Fee on drawing, according to length, &c., 10*s.* 6*d.* Consultation fee, 5*l.* 5*s.*; clerk, 10*s.* 6*d.* Refresher every day the cause is in hearing after the first day, 10*l.* 10*s.*; clerk, 10*s.* 6*d.*

The choice of counsel remains with the solicitor. The parliamentary agent does not assume to himself any direction whatever with regard to the employment of counsel or the number of counsel: he is always ready and willing to confer with his solicitors, and to give the best advice he can, both as to who shall be retained, and as to the number to be retained; but that is not always done. The counsel employed are generally either those who are most experienced, and, therefore, whose services are the most valuable, or those who are able to give all but continuous service during the sitting of the Committee. Mr. Baxter was of opinion that the consultation fee and other fees to the junior counsel might fairly be reduced, but the senior counsel are not paid unduly high.

Expense.—Mr. Prett stated that the average cost per bill in seventeen bills which were unopposed bills of all classes, railway bills and other, for his own professional charge, was 139*l.* 1*s.* 11*d.*; and the total cost of payments made by him, including the printer's charge for printing the bill, was, for each bill, 335*l.* 13*s.* 10*d.*; making in all 474*l.* The smallest charge

for any of these bills was 334*l.*, and that is the lowest rate at which a bill can ordinarily be got through Parliament. The highest cost of these seventeen unopposed bills was 805*l.*, viz., professional charges, 115*l.*; printer's charge, 31*l.*; and fees to the two Houses, 659*l.* About 100 copies of every bill are required to be deposited at the offices of the two Houses in the first instance, and more are deposited afterwards if wanted. The total number of copies actually required in practice varies from 240, which would be sufficient in a naturalization bill, to 1,200, which might be required in a bill such as a Liverpool Dock Bill; but the number usually ranges between 500 and 800.

Railway Legislation.—The panel of chairmen of railway committees has failed in producing uniformity of system and decision. In a recent case two reports were made, one sanctioning the principle of competition and one excluding the principle. Great difficulty is experienced in adopting any principle with a view to uniform decisions upon railway bills. In the case of seventy-two railway bills passed by Mr. Pratt since 1852, including fifteen unopposed bills, the average cost in professional charges, printers' charges, and house fees was 750*l.* 16*s.* 5*d.* It would be of great advantage if railways and other works in small districts could be carried out without the expense of coming to Parliament at all; and but for the difficulty about settled property there would be no difficulty in making railways without coming to Parliament. Mr. Booth proposed that an Act should be passed empowering existing railway companies or new companies to make lines of railways or works upon compliance, to the satisfaction of the Board of Trade, with certain preliminary conditions to be prescribed in the Act. Supposing any objections are made by landowners or by persons having the control of public works, such as commissioners of roads and streets, or by existing railway companies, or some company promoting a rival scheme, objecting on the ground that the scheme would interfere with their own interests, the certificate should not take effect upon publication in the *Gazette*, but those schemes should be scheduled in a public bill in the same way that the schemes for charities, and for inclosures, and town improvements, are now scheduled. Upon the second reading of the bill it should be referred to the Select Committee on Railways, and each scheme should be dealt with thenceforward as a separate railway bill, but exempt from the ordinary standing orders.

Road Bills.—The cost of an unopposed turnpike bill is from 250*l.* to 300*l.*, including everything. For an unopposed turnpike bill the professional charges vary from about 110*l.* to 130*l.*, and the total cost 180*l.*

No. CXXVII.—PRISONS (SCOTLAND).

*Nineteenth Report of the General Board of Directors of Prisons in Scotland.**[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]*

IN the prisons of Scotland there was accommodation for 3,245 prisoners; of whom, 3,095 in the criminal department, and 150 in the civil department. On the 1st July, 1856, there were in prison 2,139 criminal prisoners; of whom, 274 were untried, and 1,865 convicted, and 80 civil prisoners. During the year ending the 1st June, 1857, there were received, including cases of recommitment of criminal prisoners, 10,911 males, and 7,550 females; total, 18,461: and not including cases of recommitment, 9,929 males, and 5,527 females; total, 15,456; also 613 civil prisoners. The total number in confinement during the same period was—criminal, 12,120 males, 8,480 females; total, 20,600: civil, 663 males, 30 females. And there were removed to other prisons to undergo the last portion of their confinement 757 males, 333 females; total, 1,090. The average duration of confinement of each criminal prisoner was 39 days. The average daily number in confinement was 1,186 males, 997 females; total, 2,183 criminal, besides 67 civil. The estimated average daily number of criminal prisoners in separate confinement was 932 males, 755 females; total, 1,087. There were 6 escapes—4 males and 2 females. At midnight, on the 30th June, 1857, there were, of criminal prisoners, 2,369 prisoners tried, 302 untried, and 2,067 convicted; and of civil, 61. The number in confinement under sentence of transportation or penal servitude, 292. The prisoners were of the following ages:—1,389 were under 16 years; 1,108, 16 years and under 18; 2,233, 18 years and under 21; 11,432, 21 years and under 30; 1,233, 50 years and above: total, 17,395; of whom, 10,163 were males, and 7,232 females. Of these, 1,185 males and 941 females were sentenced to imprisonment for 10 days and under; 4,017 males and 3,351 females for 11 days and under 60; 350 males and 159 females, above 60 days and under 6 months; 307 males and 184 females for 6 months and under 1 year; 172 males and 114 females for 1 year and under 2 years; 8 for 2 years and upwards. 12 were sentenced to 14 years' transportation, 19 to 15 years, 20 to 21 years, 5 to life; total, 56. 132 were sentenced to 4 years' penal servitude, 60 above 4 years and not above 6 years, 2 above 6 years and not above 8 years, 1 above 8 years and not above 10 years; total, 195. 2 were condemned to death, 437 were imprisoned until caution be found to keep the peace after conviction on criminal charge, and 3,365 until, or instead of payment of fine or penalty of conviction of offence; total of sentences, 14,849. 193 were sentenced to be whipped. 2,242 were sentenced to imprisonment, accompanied with hard labour. Of insane prisoners, there were received during the period, 114—80 males and 34 females. The state of instruction of criminal prisoners was as follows: 3,842 could not read, 8,617 read with difficulty, and 4,720 read well; 8,468

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could not write, 595 could sign name merely, 6,576 could write with difficulty, 1,539 could write well, and 244 had learned more than mere reading and writing.

Of the civil prisoners, 55 were in prison for fines and forfeitures of 8*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* and under; 287 for debts above 8*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.* and under 20*l.*; 176 for debts of 20*l.* and under 30*l.*; 67 for debts of 50*l.* and under 100*l.*; 43 for debts of 100*l.* and under 500*l.*; 3 for debts of 500*l.* and under 1,000*l.*; and 2 for debts of 1,000*l.* and upwards.

No. CXXVIII.—PRISONS (IRELAND).

Thirty-sixth Report of the Inspector-General of Prisons in Ireland.

FOR six successive years the inspectors-general of prisons have recorded a large and progressive decrease in crime in Ireland, and for the year 1857 they were enabled to make a similarly gratifying report. But, although the decrease in the aggregate in 1857, taken in proportion with the diminished numbers, was fully equal to that in the year immediately preceding, yet in its constitution it materially differs from that which has taken place in any former year. Of late years the decrease in male crime had exceeded that in female to such an extent, that in 1856 female offenders were nearly as numerous as male (the committals of that sex being 47 per cent. of the whole number); in 1857, however, an extraordinary change has occurred, the decrease in female crime having been ten times as great as that in male. The inspectors conceived this to be a most satisfactory fact, for there can be no doubt that so great an improvement in the conduct of the females of a country is a sure indication of the advance of prosperity, employment, and education. Moreover, the decrease in juvenile crime has been enormous, much larger even than in adult, another most gratifying proof of social and educational improvement. Vagrancy had also largely decreased in both sexes; but that with males, misdemeanors, chiefly arising from assaults, and drunkenness have considerably increased.

The number of prisoners convicted in the year 1857 was 32,798, viz., felony, 1,787; misdemeanor, 1,080; criminal lunatics, 11; offences under Larceny Act, 4,333; misdemeanor, 11,827; dangerous lunatics, 612; under revenue laws, 195; under Poor Law Act, 482; by courts-martial, 93; under Vagrant Act, 2,233; drunkards, 9,667. The total number of males convicted in 1856 was 18,767, and in 1857, 18,366; and of females, in 1856, 17,895, and in 1857, 14,432.

The committals, in 1857, of persons under seventeen years of age were, males, 2,783; females, 761; against 4,033 and 1,294 respectively in 1856; showing a decrease of 30 per cent. in male, and of 41 per cent. in female juvenile crime, whereas in the committals of adults (i.e. of those of seventeen years and upwards), there has been an increase of 901 among males, and a decrease of 3,165, or 16 per cent., among females; it thus appearing, that

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the reduction in juvenile crime has extraordinarily exceeded that in adult. Of the juveniles thus committed, 284 males and 82 females were convicted at assizes and quarter sessions; 2,100 males and 578 females were summarily convicted (of whom 387 males and 119 females were vagrants); 119 males and 17 females were acquitted; and 280 males and 84 females were for further examination or untried. The total of committals of both sexes under seventeen years of age being, of males 3,544, and of females 761, the females were a little more than one-fifth of the whole, or, in other words, there were nearly four males for one female. Of the above, 220 males and 70 females were twice in prison in 1857, 66 males and 30 females were thrice in prison in 1857, 17 males and 11 females were four times in prison in 1847, 16 males and 5 females were five times and upwards in prison in 1857. The number of individuals represented by the committals was, males, 2,483; females, 405—these figures showing that the females recurred to gaol more than the males, the number of individuals of this sex, 405, being a little more than half the number of their committals, 761.

No. CXXIX.—COURT OF BANKRUPTCY.

A Return of the Total Amount of Moneys paid into the Bank of England to the credit of the Accountant in Bankruptcy for the Year ending the 31st of December, 1856. (11.)

THE amount paid in by official assignees and others was 1,111,594*l.* 10*s.* 6*d.* Proceeds of sale of stock from bankruptcy fund account, 47,312*l.* 10*s.* The amount paid out by orders of Lord Chancellor, 60,000*l.*; of commissioners, 300,695*l.* 3*s.* 7*d.* Dividend account transferred, 811,964*l.* 5*s.* 1*d.*; paid, 753,164*l.* 8*s.* 10*d.* Unclaimed dividend account paid in, 2,069*l.* 8*s.* 1*d.*; paid out for investment, 1,570*l.* 2*s.* 1*d.* The amount paid in the chief registrar's account by official assignees, at interest, &c., 77,043*l.*; commissioners of inland revenue, 16,927*l.* 11*s.* 9*d.* The net balances on the 1st January, 1857, were as follow:—General account of bankrupts' estates, 127,469*l.* 1*s.* 11*d.*; bankruptcy fund account stock, 1,384,578*l.* 19*s.* 6*d.*; unclaimed dividend account cash, 577*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.*; stock, 6,110*l.* 16*s.* 3*d.*; the chief registrar's account cash, 13,894*l.* 13*s.* 9*d.*; stock, 65,882*l.* 4*s.* 10*d.* The salary of the five London commissioners was 2,000*l.* each; the salary of the five London registrars, 1,000*l.* each; the salary of the country commissioners, 1,800*l.* each; of country registrars, 800*l.* each. The whole amount of salaries was 55,622*l.* The country compensations amounted to 11,253*l.* 19*s.* 5*d.*; the London compensations, to 8,682*l.* 18*s.* 9*d.*; retiring annuities, 3,733*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*; expenses, 14,754*l.* 4*s.* 3*d.*; total, 94,046*l.* 9*s.* 1*d.*

No. CXXX.—COUNTY COURTS.

*Number of Plaints entered in the County Courts in 1857, with the sums for which entered; number tried; number tried above 20*l*., and under 50*l*.; amount of Money recovered by Judgments, and amount of Money paid into Court. (The Lord Brougham and Vaux.) 18th March, 1858. (3.)*

THE number of complaints entered in 1857 was 744,652; the number of cases tried, 395,731; and of these 5,159 were above 20*l*., and not exceeding 50*l*. The courts sat 9,019 days. The total amount of moneys for which the complaints were entered was 1,937,745*l*.; and the total amount for which judgment has been obtained, exclusive of costs, 978,592*l*. The amount paid into court in satisfaction of debts sued for without proceeding to judgment, 146,417*l*. 1,068 causes were tried with the assistance of a jury, and in 316 of these the parties have obtained a verdict. 92,894 executions were issued by the registrars of the court against the goods of the defendants. There were issued 112,961 summonses, and the number heard by the court was 56,655. The number of warrants of commitment issued by the registrar of the court was 27,783; and the number of persons actually taken to prison under such warrant, 10,607. Since their first introduction in March, 1857, the total number of complaints entered was 5,440,080; and the number of causes tried 2,965,464. The number of complaints entered by consent was 261; and the number tried 164. From the 14th August, 1850, to the 31st December, 1857, there were 177 appeals, and of these 53 decisions of the County Courts were confirmed, 52 were reversed, and 64 dropped. The courts sat altogether 91,623 days. The total amount of moneys for which complaints were entered was 16,279,314*l*.; and the amount for which judgment has been obtained, 8,309,236*l*. There were 9,002 causes tried by jury. The total amount of fees up to the 30th September, 1856, was 2,559,415*l*.

No. CXXXI.—CONVICTS.

A Return of the Number of Convicts to whom Tickets of Leave have been granted during the Years 1857 and 1858. (Viscount Dungannon.) 11th April, 1859. (117 L.)

FROM the 1st January to the 31st December, 1857, the number of convicts released in orders of licence was 739; and from the 1st January to 31st December, 1858, the number was 345; total, 1,084. The number of licence holders recommitted to prison for fresh offences in 1857 was 636, and in 1858, 330; total, 966.

No. CXXXII.—BANKRUPTCY (SCOTLAND).

A Copy of the Report of the Accountant in Bankruptcy in Scotland to the Court of Session for the Year ending October, 1857. (Mr. William Ewart.) 20th July, 1858. (86.)

THIS report was made by the Accountant in Bankruptcy to the Court of Session in obedience to the provisions of the Act of Parliament, 19 and 20 Vict. c. 79, cited as the Bankruptcy (Scotland) Act, 1856, which came into operation on the 1st November, 1856. During the year ending 31st October, 1857, there were awarded 432 sequestrations, of which 107, or 25 per cent., by the Court of Session (Lord Ordinary); and 325, or 75 per cent., by the sheriffs of counties. The sequestrations awarded by the Court of Session are remitted to the sheriffs of counties, and these sequestrations thereafter depend in the courts of the sheriffs to which they have been remitted. Of the 432 sequestrations, 188 were depending in the sheriffdom of Lanark, 64 in that of Edinburgh, 32 in that of Perth, 23 in that of Forfar, 17 in that of Renfrew, 14 in that of Ayr, 14 in that of Stirling, 13 in that of Aberdeen, 10 in that of Fife, and 57 in other sheriffdoms. Of the 432 sequestrations 1 was recalled wholly, 1 was recalled partially, and in 7 cases the deed of arrangement was approved of, and the sequestration was declared at an end. There were, therefore, 424 sequestrations in operation, involving 518 separate estates. Of these estates 2 were wound up by division, followed by discharge of trustees; 1 wound up by discharge of trustees without division, there being no fund; 104 were wound up by composition contracts, and 411 were in progress of winding up. There were during the period in question 21 sequestrations awarded of the estates of debtors who were dead at the dates of sequestration. 84 sequestrations, or about one-fifth of the whole, involved an amount not exceeding 100*l.* In one of these there was no estate. In 23 sequestrations there had been completed settlements by composition, the rate being 2*s.* 6*d.* per pound as the highest, and 1 farthing as the lowest, giving an average of 10½*d.* per pound on the debts. In 60 sequestrations there were no settlements returned, and the sequestrations were in dependence. In 103 cases, which had been closed by composition, the rates of composition have been returned, the highest rate being 15*s.* per pound on the debts, free of expenses; the lowest, 1 farthing, free of expense; average, 3*s.* 6½*d.* per pound on the debts, free of expense. The amount of debts in 104 estates was 447,447*l.* 1*s.* 9½*d.*; and the gross value of these estates, according to the statements of the trustees, 113,330*l.* 19*s.* 3½*d.* The gross assets, after providing for the secured or preferable debts, exhibited an average dividend equivalent to 4*s.* 7½*d.* per pound. The actual settlements returned presented an average rate of composition of 3*s.* 6½*d.* per pound, free of expenses. The expenses of these 104 estates amounted to 8,545*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.*, of which 2,467*l.* were for trustees' remuneration, 1,968*l.* for law expenses, and

4,110*l.* miscellaneous charges. The average expense per sequestration was 82*l.* 2*s.*

Of the 44 sequestrations in which there was either final or partial division of funds amongst the ordinary creditors, the gross amount of the estates was 108,945*l.*; preferable debts, 10,829*l.*; unsecured or ordinary, 160,622*l.*; total 171,445*l.*, leaving a deficiency of 62,500*l.* The gross receipts or recoveries have amounted to 52,422*l.*; the expenses, 9,782*l.*; leaving free receipts, 42,640*l.*, whereof 6,098*l.* was divided amongst secured or preferable creditors, and 28,538*l.* amongst ordinary or unsecured creditors; total, 34,636*l.*, leaving a free fund recovered in these 44 estates, applicable to future divisions, of 8,004*l.* The sum of 56,523*l.* remained yet to be recovered. The ordinary expenses incurred in sequestrations in Scotland settled by composition, are about 12 per cent. of the gross receipts, and the extraordinary expenses attending the recovery of the funds, consisting of wages and other charges for working up and finishing materials, completing work in progress, &c., are about 6 per cent. of the gross receipts. The ordinary expenses consisted of—allowances to bankrupts, $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; trustees' commissions, $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; law expenses, $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; miscellaneous, $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; miscellaneous extraordinary, $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. In relation to the gross receipts, the expenses and charges amounted to $18\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; the sum divided among creditors, 66 per cent.; and the surplus fund recovered but not yet divided, $15\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Of the gross value of these estates 48 per cent. has been got in or recovered during the year, and 52 per cent. remained to be recovered at the 31st October, 1857. The total number of discharges in favour of bankrupts was 101: 5 by the Lord Ordinary, and 96 by the sheriffs of counties.

No. CXXXIII.—FORESHORES.

A Statement of all Legal Proceedings instituted, &c., on behalf of the Crown, with respect to the Title of the Crown to the Bed or Shores of the Sea, &c., from the Year 1830, up to the present Time, &c. (The Lord Wynford.)
27th July, 1857. (85 L.)

In 1833 an information of intrusion was filed to establish the right of the Crown to a tract of land of about 270 acres, formerly overflowed by the tide near Chester, on the south bank of the tidal navigable river Dee. The decision was in favour of the Crown. The costs amounted to 1,323*l.* The suit lasted two years. The land in question was sold by the Crown to the Marquis of Westminster for 7,500*l.*

In 1839 proceedings were instituted to establish the right of the Crown to a long strip of land on the northern side of the river Humber. The foreshore was required by the Hull and Selby Railway. The decision was in favour of the Crown; 3,185*l.* was paid to the Crown. The suit lasted two years.

In 1844 an information was filed to established the right of the Crown

to the bed and shores of the River Thames, within the flux and reflux of the tides, and to certain encroachments upon such shores which had been made under licences granted by the Corporation of London, as conservators of the Thames, but who claimed to be owners of the soil. The result was in favour of the Crown. The corporation withdrew all claims to the bed and shores of the River Thames. They paid 5,000*l.* in satisfaction of all claims for rents and profits up to the 31st day of December, 1853. But a grant was to be made to such corporation as conservators of the River Thames, of the estate and interest of the Crown upon trust, one-third part of the proceeds to be paid to the Crown as part of the hereditary revenue, and two parts to be appropriated to the improvement of the navigation of the river. The suit lasted 12 years.

In 1845 an information was filed to establish the right of the Crown to the shores of the tidal navigable rivers Bury and Lougher, in the county of Carmarthen, and to the mines of coal under the said shores. The result was in favour of the Crown. The title of her Majesty was admitted. One half of the proceeds of the land already reclaimed was to be paid to the Earl of Cawdor; but all future land to be possessed by the Crown. The suit lasted five years.

In 1845 another information was filed, to establish the right of the Crown to the northern shore of the arm of the sea or estuary, called the Bury, in the county of Carmarthen, which also resulted in favour of the Crown. The suit lasted seven years.

In 1851 a suit was instituted to compel specific performance of an agreement entered into with the Commissioners of Woods by the Corporation of Liverpool, for the purchase of a portion of the foreshore of the navigable river Mersey, lying between the Birkenhead and the Monks ferries. The suit was arranged, and after two years the information was dismissed by the payment of 4,000*l.* to the Crown.

In 1852 an information was filed to establish the claim of the Crown to the coal and culm under that part of the estuary of the Dee which lies opposite to, or below the hill or manor of Mostyn, in the county of Flint; but the proceedings were discontinued before the cause came to the hearing in 1854.

In 1852 an information of intrusion was filed against certain parties for erecting a shed or house at Castleton, in the Isle of Portland. The decision was in favour of the Crown. The site of the building now forms part of a wharf under lease from the Crown.

In 1854 an information was filed to establish the right of the Crown to the coals and mines of coal lying under certain parts of the western shore of the estuary of the river Dee, claimed by Sir John Hamner. The suit is still pending.

In 1854 a suit was instituted to enforce specific performance of a contract whereby Lord Vivian agreed to purchase for 1,000*l.* the interest of the Crown in a portion of the shore of the river Truro in Cornwall. The result was in favour of the Crown.

In 1855 an information was filed to establish the right of the Crown to the minerals under the bed of the sea in the parish of St. Just, in Penwith, in the county of Cornwall. The result was in favour of the Crown, under terms of arrangement. The suit lasted one year.

In 1856 an information was filed to establish the right of the Crown to part of the shores of the estuary of the river Mersey, called Tranmere Pool, in the county of Chester. The suit still pending.

In 1856 a subpoena was issued to answer an information of intrusion for removing shingle from the seashore at Dover. The result was in favour of the Crown.

In 1857 a plaint was issued to assert the right of the Crown to the seashore of Littlehampton in the county of Sussex. The result was in favour of the Crown.

In 1857 an information was filed to restrain the South Wales Railway Company from using the railway constructed by them upon the seashore between Swansea and Carmarthen, and between Carmarthen and Neyland; and from constructing a floating pier and other works on the north side of Milford Haven. The result was partly in favour of the Crown, and partly was arranged.

In Scotland four suits were instituted connected with the alveus of the river Clyde, and two connected with the alveus of the river Tay.

No. CXXXIV.—FOURTH REPORT OF THE STATUTE LAW COMMISSION.

AFTER reference to the second report, containing a proposal for the classification of the statutes, with suggestion for the compilation of a register, showing all the acts in force and those partially or wholly repealed, the Commissioners reported:—

That such register has been carried on and completed, from the end of the session of 1858 back to the time of the union with Ireland; so that we are now in possession of a full register and classification of all the public general statutes from the 41 Geo. 3. (U.K.) down to the end of the session of 21 & 22 Vict.

The principle of classification followed in this register has been to distinguish, in the first instance, those acts which are, for the most part, simply “administrative,” and accordingly the acts relating to the “armed forces,” the “revenue,” and “finance” are placed in three classes by themselves; the remaining contents of the statute book, constituting the whole of what is ordinarily understood to come under the term “law,” as being “the permanent rule of civil conduct,” are then arranged in classes according to their territorial extent of operation,—one for the whole United Kingdom, one for England and Ireland only, one for England only, and so forth. A separate column states shortly the subject-matter of each act; another, what previous acts it expressly affects; another, by what subsequent acts it is itself expressly affected, either by way of repeal or otherwise. Other columns show, with reference to temporary acts, whether they have expired,

or when they will expire; and there is also a column of remarks, in which points deemed to be of importance are noticed.

This register may be used as the foundation for a new edition of the statutes passed since the Union, the advantage of which, to the public, would be considerable, even if no consolidation were effected; the present unwieldy bulk of the modern statutes would be materially reduced. The public general statutes passed since the year 1800 are now contained in $23\frac{1}{2}$ quarto volumes, each volume averaging nearly 1,000 closely-printed pages. These $23\frac{1}{2}$ volumes contain, as appears by the register, 6,887 statutes, of which, however, only 1,836 are included in the classes IV. to IX. inclusive, *i.e.*, are alone to be considered as general laws relating to the whole or some part of the United Kingdom. If, therefore, the whole of the 6,887 statutes fill $23\frac{1}{2}$ volumes, it may with reasonable certainty be assumed that 1,836 will fill little more than six volumes. But probably this is much too high an estimate; for, of the 1,836 statutes still to some degree in force, there are many of which several sections have been expressly repealed, all of which are noticed in the register, and of course in any new edition of the statute law now in force none of these sections would be included.

But, beyond the mere reduction of the general bulk, a further advantage might be obtained if the new edition should be arranged in parts or fasciculi, each containing one of the classes, and confined to the statutes and parts of statutes now remaining in force, so as to enable all persons to obtain what they want at a moderate price, without being compelled to buy at the same time a large quantity of what they do not want. We have reason to believe that your Majesty's printers will be willing to print such an edition without expense to the public, beyond stipulating for the purchase by the Government of the same number of copies as are now taken of the acts of every session for the use of magistrates, and for other public purposes.

There is, however, an important point in which the register is imperfect as a foundation for such an edition; we refer to the enactments which have been repealed by implication, or have ceased to be of practical importance by other means than by express repeal. It was beyond the powers of the compilers of the register to enter into such questions; and although they have in some instances noted cases of implied repeal in the column of "remarks," it is to be understood that the register only professes to note cases of express repeal. It is obvious, however, that the utility of the suggested edition would be much diminished unless the acts which have ceased to be in force, for any reason whatever, were omitted from it; and it would be necessary, therefore, to employ an editor competent to the task of revising the statutes with reference to these questions.

Considerable difficulties exist in some cases of inconsistent or apparently inconsistent enactments; but these must be left to the discretion of the editor, with only a general direction to omit only those statutes which are without reasonable doubt inoperative. On these questions, as well as on all others, whether raised by the remarks in the register or otherwise, the editor would have an opportunity, if he thought proper, of consulting with and taking the advice of this Board. We think that such an edition, if undertaken, should be accompanied by notes (where necessary) explanatory of the reasons for inserting or omitting any enactment, and also by the statements already inserted in the register, respecting the connection of each act with other statutes; but not (as a general rule) by notes of any

other character. Where any acts of the Scotch or Irish parliaments have been affected by any of the acts comprised within the register, they have been distinguished by the letters S. and I. In addition to the uses above indicated, the register will also be valuable as a book of reference for professional and other persons having occasion to examine the statutes, and for many incidental purposes. The want of some register of this kind has led to error, even in the courts of law; thus, in the case of the Sonning railway accident, in 1842, the Court of Queen's Bench considered minutely the language of a statute (the 2 & 3 Edw. 6. c. 24.) which had been repealed fourteen years before, by the 7 Geo. 4. c. 64.; and we sometimes find the legislature committing the mistake of repealing statutes which have been repealed already; thus, the act of last session, 21 & 22 Vict. c. 26., abolishing the property qualification of members of Parliament, repeals the 9 Anne, c. 5. and the 33 Geo. 2. c. 20., and part of the 39 & 40 Geo. 3. c. 67., all of which had been repealed by the 1 & 2 Vict. c. 48.

We have entered into these particulars as to the possibility of publishing a useful new edition of the statutes, because we believe there are persons who consider that any satisfactory consolidation of them is impossible. In that opinion, however, we do not concur; we are sanguine in the hope, now that we are enabled from our register to see exactly what statutes and parts of statutes are still unrepealed, that the whole may well be consolidated; and we proceed to state the course we recommend in carrying on and perfecting the work of consolidation. We have, however, already stated in our third report that it is probable that there are some statutes which it would not be expedient to consolidate.

It appears from the register that there are 1,836 statutes coming under these classes now wholly or partially in force, passed since 1800. We have proceeded, as the next necessary step towards consolidation, to group the whole of these 1,836 statutes under distinct heads, showing from the register what statutes are in force. We have arranged the whole under 173 heads (assuming that it is expedient to consolidate the whole). Such a classification must obviously be far from perfect. Many statutes relate to several different matters; indeed it has been one of the many causes of opprobrium attaching to our legislation, that an enactment relating to a particular subject is sometimes found in a single clause of a statute with the general scope of which the clause has no connection; such is the clause in the 20 Geo. 2. c. 42., enacting that Berwick-on-Tweed and Wales shall always be deemed included in all enactments relating to England, the statute being a statute for regulating the house duty and window tax; and similar instances might be adduced.

It does not, however, appear to us that, with reference to the work of consolidation, the objection arising from the imperfect nature of our arrangement is important. Our object is merely to show under what heads consolidation may best be attempted. In the process of consolidating any group of statutes, it probably will often happen that the person employed in consolidating may point out that some particular statute, or some particular clauses of a statute, may more appropriately be consolidated under some different head from that on which he is engaged. There can be no difficulty in dealing with such a case whenever it occurs, and we think that any attempt at a more perfect or scientific classification would only lead to great and useless delay.

The register, as we have already stated, deals only with the statutes from

the year 1800 up to, and including those of the last session of Parliament. But in order to make the work of consolidation complete, we must carry the register backward to a much earlier date. We do not, however, anticipate anything like the same degree of labour in the years before the Union as has been necessarily devoted to the last 58 years. The statutes from Magna Charta to the year 1800 inclusive, occupy in the common quarto edition only 18 volumes, whereas those since that year fill, as we have already stated, 23½, besides which the volumes prior to 1801 are much smaller than those subsequent, so that the bulk remaining to be dealt with is much less than that already completed. But it must further be observed, that even with that diminished bulk the task must be less laborious than it has been with the modern statutes, owing to the much greater number of the earlier statutes which have been repealed or have expired. Some estimate may be formed of the probable diminution of labour from this cause, by comparing the state of the statute book during the last years say the 6 years from 1853 to 1858, both inclusive, with the first 6 years comprised in the register, *i.e.* from 1801 to 1806, both inclusive. In the later period, that ending in 1858, it appears by the register that 731 public statutes were passed, and that of these 321 included in the classes to be dealt with as permanent laws, being above two-fifths of the whole, are wholly or partially in force. In the former period, that beginning in 1801, 788 statutes were passed; but of these, only 74, being not one-tenth of the whole, are now wholly or partially in force as general permanent law. The great probability is, that the proportion of Statutes to be dealt with by this Board, as compared with the whole bulk, will be found continually diminishing as we get further removed from the present day.

But whether the task of completing the register shall prove to be one of more or less labour, we are of opinion that it must be performed; for without such a systematic tracing backwards of every enactment, it is impossible to know with certainty what statutes are, and what are not in force relative to any particular subject. We do not, however, mean to give it as our opinion that the register must necessarily be carried backward through the whole period up to Magna Charta. If the register is carried back to the revolution of 1688, or perhaps even to the accession of the House of Hanover, it may probably answer most of its practical purposes. It is not necessary to decide now at what reign it may stop. It is clear that it ought to be continued through many volumes of statutes prior to those with which it has already dealt. Supposing it to stop at the accession of George I., there will then remain four quarto volumes of comparatively moderate dimensions unexamined by the register; if it is carried back to the Revolution, the number not examined will be less than three.

Although, however, we are opinion that the registration of the statutes should be continued, we by no means think that the prosecution of this task ought to prevent the work of consolidation from proceeding.

The register is perfect only as to the statutes since 1800; but in the fifth column it refers to all previous enactments expressly affected by every statute passed since 1800. Further progress in the register may show that these references are incomplete; but any deficiencies in the work of consolidation arising from this cause may, without difficulty, be afterwards made good. And as we have now from the register a clear view of all the statutes since 1800 to be consolidated, together with very many prior to that year, and have arranged them all, so far as relates to the statutes

which are to be consolidated, under 173 distinct heads, it would appear at first sight that the whole body of our statute law passed since 1800, including the statutes prior to that year, amended or referred to by subsequent enactments, might be comprised in 173 new consolidated statutes. This, however, is not the case. If the 173 heads under which we have arranged the statutes be subdivided with reference to the territorial extent of their operation, there will appear to be, in truth, about 453 heads; for under about 96 of the heads there are statutes relating to the United Kingdom; 28, Great Britain only; 55, England and Ireland only; 3, Scotland and Ireland only; 109, England only; 70, Scotland only; 92, Ireland only: total, 453. And this must be considered in estimating the probable amount of consolidated statutes; for it will be in many cases impossible usefully to unite in one statute enactments relating to the different parts of the United Kingdom: for instance, under the head of "highways and bridges," the register shows that there are 33 statutes; *i.e.* relating to England only, 12; to Scotland only, 8; and to Ireland only, 13. These 33 statutes, together with those prior to 1800 to which they refer, may usefully be consolidated into three; but it would obviously be inconvenient to consolidate them all in one statute, which would then contain a great number of incongruous enactments, useless and embarrassing to those who have practically to deal with the subject. On the other hand, it is to be expected that under many heads, as the work of consolidation proceeds, it may be found possible, without altering the law, to unite under one statute, applicable to the whole United Kingdom, many enactments now affecting only parts of it separately; but to what extent this may operate to reduce the number we have not been able to make any satisfactory estimate. There are some statutes relating to subjects exclusively under the management of some public board or department; as, for instance, the statutes relating to the poor, to the Copyhold and Inclosure Commissioners, &c.: the consolidation of these ought, we think, to be left to the departments whose duty it is to deal with them; though we shall always be ready to render all the aid in our power. Under some heads it is probable that, as the work proceeds, it may appear convenient to consolidate in more than one statute, which will add to the gross number of the whole. Taking all these points into consideration, we think it probable, from the data furnished by the register, that the whole existing statute law may be usefully consolidated in from 300 to 400 statutes (assuming that all are to be consolidated); for it does not appear to us probable that the investigation of the statutes prior to 1801 will lead to the addition of many new heads under which consolidation would take place, though it may probably indicate some earlier statutes to be included under the heads which we have already adopted.

We have already before us upwards of 90 consolidated Bills, prepared under our directions, but as these were prepared before we had the advantage of the register, some of them may require further consideration, though we do not anticipate that there will be a necessity for any material changes in them. And, as the best mode of arriving at a useful practical result, we propose to proceed by employing, as we have hitherto done, competent professional gentlemen to frame consolidating Bills under the different heads under which we have arranged the whole of the statutes appearing by the register to be now in force as part of our permanent law. Some of bills already so prepared are in a state in which they may properly be submitted to Parliament.

As the success which (it is said) has attended the experiments in consolidation and codification made in the state of New York, and other states of the American Union, is often referred to as a proof of the possibility of effecting similar results in this country, we may observe that the course which we have hitherto followed is very similar to that followed by the state of New York; and though that state has now advanced further than we have, it should be remembered that the work was begun certainly as long ago as 1801. Twice at least, in 1801 and 1813, the Statutes of New York were revised and consolidated in a rough way, and published in some such edition as we have above referred to; and it was not till about 1825 that anything in the nature of such a code as they now possess was attempted. That code was based on, and, as we believe, could not have been accomplished without the aid of, the previous revisions; it has itself been several times revised, and republished, but it is still very far from being a perfect work. It is limited to the Statute Law, but the legislature of the state has recently determined on attempting a more complete code.

We think, however, that in order to enable us speedily and efficiently to bring the duties confided to us to an end, it is essential that some barrister of eminence should be selected by your Majesty, who should devote his whole time and attention to superintending the work in progress. Now that we have ascertained with a reasonable approach to accuracy the amount of work to be done (even assuming that all the statutes are to be consolidated), he will have no difficulty in parcelling out the different Bills among draftsmen competent to the task of consolidation. As every Bill is completed, it should be his duty carefully to compare it with the register, and so to ascertain that it embodies all existing enactments; and wherever (as will often be the case) he finds incongruities, or apparent defects, he should point them out. Whenever they are of a nature in which it is reasonable to suppose that the propriety of amendment would be universally admitted, and would therefore give rise to no serious difference of opinion, the necessary change may be made, with a note calling attention to it. For, as we have already stated, although the general improvement of the Statute Law is beyond the scope of our duties, yet we can hardly be doing wrong in attempting to suggest a remedy for obvious defects which have probably been (in general) the result of mere inadvertence.

The time in which the whole work may be completed must depend on the number of draftsmen employed; but, assuming, as our experience enables us to do, that ten or twelve gentlemen may be constantly employed, we think it fair to anticipate that the whole of the work may be completed in about two years. And, if at the end of that time we are able to present to your Majesty the whole of the Statutes coming under the class of General Laws, filling only about three volumes, but comprising all or nearly all the statutes of a general nature now scattered in above forty volumes, we venture to think that our labours will not have been wholly useless. When the Bills shall have been thus prepared it will be for the Legislature to consider whether any and what facilities shall be afforded for their enactment, and the extent to which they may be willing to place confidence in the results of our labours.

The report was signed by Lord Stanley, the Earl of Lyndhurst, Lord Brougham, Lord Wrottesley, Lord Cranworth, Lord Wensleydale, Sir W. Page Wood, Mr. James Craufurd, Mr. J. D. Fitzgerald, Sir Fitzroy Kelly, Mr. W. Coulson, and Mr. H. Bellenden Ker.

No. LX.—LUNACY.

Twelfth Report of the Commissioners in Lunacy to the Lord Chancellor.
(Colonel Clifford.) 11th June, 1858. (340.)

THE Commissioners reported the steps taken by them towards the provision of adequate public accommodation for pauper lunatics, and the progress made in this respect in several counties. There were in course of erection asylums able to accommodate 1,169 males and 1,167 females, and when the buildings in progress are completed, there will be 4,817 additional beds provided. On the 1st of January, 1857, the number of pauper lunatics in county and borough asylums, hospitals, and licensed houses, amounted to 16,657. On the 1st of January, 1858, this number had increased to 17,572, showing an increase during the year of 915 patients. And of the total number 2,467 were confined in the various metropolitan and provincial licensed houses. Assuming then, that during the next two years the progressive increase of pauper lunatics will be at least equal to that of the year 1857, it follows that, on the 1st of January, 1860, accommodation for 1,830 additional beds will be required; and if to this number be added the 2,467 patients who are now confined in licensed houses, there will remain to meet the want of the ensuing year only 520 vacant beds. It was obvious, therefore, that if licensed houses are to be closed for the reception of pauper patients, some scheme of a far more comprehensive character must be adopted in order to provide public accommodation for the pauper lunatics of this country. The Commissioners recommended the admission of patients into hospitals on part payment. Considerable improvements have been made in some hospitals. In Guy's Hospital, the heavy fire-guards and trough-bedsteads have been removed, the high wall surrounding the airing court has been taken down, the rooms have been properly furnished, various means of amusement have been supplied, and the patients have been taken for excursions in the country and upon the river. The Commissioners again adverted to the failure on the part of the authorities of a large number of boroughs bound to provide asylums, to make proper legal provision for the care and treatment of their pauper lunatics; and submitted the expediency of amending the Lunatic Asylum Act of 1853, with a view more effectually to carry out the intentions of the Legislature, and to assist those boroughs, of which there are many, the authorities whereof are willing, but have hitherto failed to effect arrangements with visitors of county asylums.

On the 1st of January, 1858, there were confined in asylums—private lunatics, 232; pauper, 14,931: total, 15,163, of whom 6,931 were males, and 8,232 females. There were also confined in asylums 12 found lunatic by inquisition, 303 criminals, and 1,254 chargeable to counties or boroughs. In hospitals there were 1,577 private lunatics, and 174 paupers: total 1,751, of whom 913 were males, and 838 females. There were also 31 found lunatic by inquisition, and 118 criminals. In metropolitan licensed

houses there were 1,306 private lunatics; 1,317 pauper lunatics: total, 2,623, of whom 1,166 were males and 1,457 females. There were also in these licensed houses 122 found lunatic by inquisition, 35 criminals, and 103 chargeable to counties or boroughs. In provincial licensed houses there were 1,497 private lunatics, 1,150 pauper lunatics; total, 2,647, of whom 1,357 were males and 1,290 females. There were also 130 found lunatic by inquisition, 177 criminals, and 133 chargeable to counties or boroughs. In the royal naval hospitals there were 126 private lunatics. Altogether there were confined 4,738 private lunatics, 17,572 pauper lunatics; total, 22,310: of whom 10,493 were males, and 11,817 females. There were 490 found lunatic by inquisition, 633 criminals, and 1,490 chargeable to counties or boroughs.

No. LXI.—SEWAGE OF TOWNS.

Preliminary Report of the Commissioners appointed to inquire into the best mode of distributing the Sewage of Towns and applying it to beneficial and profitable uses.

THE Commission was issued on the 5th of January, 1857, to Baron Portman, Henry Ker Seymer, Esq., M.P., Isambard Kingdom Brunel, Esq., C.E., Robert Rawlinson, Esq., C.E., Professor John Thomas Way, John Bennett Lawes, Esq., Dr. Southwood Smith, John Simon, Esq., and Henry Austin, Esq. Mr. Brunel and Baron Portman subsequently resigned, and Lord Essex was appointed a Commissioner. On the 26th of May, 1858, the Commissioners made a preliminary report; in which, having first detailed the steps taken by them in order to investigate the question in all its bearings, they proceeded to describe the importance of the inquiry as follows:—

The evil in question is of comparatively modern growth. The problem of the disposal of sewage has only quite recently forced itself on public attention, for until within a comparatively short time sewage, as we now know it, did not practically exist. The commencement of the evil, which is fast acquiring such magnitude, dates with the first steps which were taken towards the abolition of cesspools and the introduction of waterclosets. It need hardly be stated that until recently the great bulk of the excrements of town populations was received in pits or reservoirs attached to each house or group of houses. These reservoirs, known as cesspools, were in some cases provided with overflow channels, which allowed a partial escape of the liquid into the public sewers; but in many instances, especially where the ground was of a porous character, such an overflow was deemed unnecessary. The liquid readily soaked away into the sub-soil, carrying with it much of the lighter part of the solid matter—a result which was not over-zealously guarded against, as it diminished the frequency, and, therefore, the expense and annoyance, of emptying these receptacles.

At the time we speak of, waterclosets were comparatively rare; they were confined to houses of the wealthy, and even then they were used in

conjunction with cesspools. So that the sewers of a town received and discharged little more than the washings of the streets, brought to them by rain, the waste water of dwelling-houses, and a limited quantity of the urine of the population, derived, as we have mentioned, from the overflow of cesspools. The water supply also being limited to that required for washing, cooking, and other household purposes, and not being generally employed in the form which causes at the present day so large a proportion of its consumption, that is to say, in the waterclosets, was very small compared with that which towns now enjoy.

Such were the conditions which formerly influenced the nature and quantity of sewage. It is, undoubtedly, in a gradually growing acquaintance with the laws of health which we have derived during the present century from the devoted labours of eminent men, principally of the medical profession, that we must seek for the origin of those extensive changes which have brought us to the present condition with regard to town sewage.

These labours have led to certain practical conclusions, which we may sum up very shortly in the shape of two or three axioms:—That the offensive effluvia given off by animal and vegetable substances in a state of decay are highly prejudicial to health, and productive of diseases of the worst forms; that decaying human excrements, solid and liquid, are among the most injurious of such substances; that the retention in cesspools of such decaying matter beneath and around the dwellings of crowded populations is a serious nuisance, and that, for the rapid and regular removal of such substances immediately after their formation, and before they can become a source of offence and disease, the only practicable means is an abundant employment of water, that is to say, the adoption of some form of water-closet.

These conclusions were not arrived at all at once, nor did they find a rapid acceptance amongst all classes; but we may safely say that few people will now be found who would venture to dissent from them, and where such dissent is expressed, it may generally be traced either to ignorance of facts which have been so convincingly brought to light, or to the existence of interested motives; to the dislike, for instance, of owners of house property to any interference with the existing arrangements of that property or to changes which involve expense; to the dislike of the inhabitants of towns to a new imposition of rates; to personal or political animosity, and to many of those other causes which are known to retard the progress of improvements of which the utility and desirableness are otherwise not called in question.

Practically, however, it matters not whether there be or be not any ground for questioning the propriety of the abolition of cesspools, and the transference of their contents to the public sewers; the matter has gone so far, and the truth of the axioms just enumerated is so generally received and acknowledged by the public, that any idea of a return to cesspools, and to the evils which they engender, is out of the question.

When once these views found currency and general adoption, the changes to which we have referred rapidly followed. The abolition of cesspools led to the adoption of waterclosets and to house drainage; the adoption of waterclosets to the want of a fuller supply of water; a fuller supply of water and general house drainage to the necessity for more sewers, and, in some instances, to sewers of greater capacity; and lastly, these sewers, more numerous and of greater capacity, delivered to their outfalls a much

larger quantity of liquid of a totally different character from that which sewers formerly contained, inasmuch as they were now charged, not with a small proportion only, but in effect with the whole, of the excrementitious matter, solid and liquid, of the inhabitants of a town. Add to these influences the highly important fact of the enormous increase of population in most towns, the subdivision of tenements thereby induced, and the consequent overcrowding of the population, and we have abundant evidence of the urgent necessity of providing for the disposal of town refuse, which the altered state of public feeling, on questions of public health, peremptorily requires shall be removed to a safe distance from the spot of its production, and from the residences of human beings.

The discharge of a large body of sewage into a river or watercourse is frequently not only productive of nuisance and disease to the neighbourhood where it takes place, but its influence extends to distant populations. Many rivers, especially in the crowded districts of the north of England, pass through several towns in their course seawards, and receiving from each its complement of sewage filth, are even now little better than sewers themselves, although comparatively few of those places have yet carried out any complete works of water-supply and sewerage. The increasing offensiveness of the Medlock and the Irwell at Manchester, of the Mersey at Stockport, of the Tame at Birmingham, and of many other rivers, proves that a national evil is fast growing up which demands immediate and serious attention. The last-named river, the Tame, before it reaches Birmingham, receives the sewage of a number of towns, containing a total population of no less than two hundred and seventy thousand persons. A small stream in itself, it may, without exaggeration, be said, during dry seasons, to contain at Birmingham as much sewage as water. That such a stream, traversing a densely populated town and exposing to the air a large surface of putrid liquid, must be very injurious to health, no one can doubt. But this is not all. It must be remembered that the natural source to which town populations resort for a supply of water would be the nearest river or watercourse; and though engineers, well knowing the contamination to which the water of rivers is liable, have in many instances had recourse to other sources of water, such as springs or deep wells, frequently inferior in point of softness, as well as deficient in quantity, it still remains difficult or impossible for many towns to obtain water otherwise than from the rivers on whose banks they are situate.

In many cases, therefore, we find the inhabitants of a town under the necessity of obtaining water from a river which in its passage through densely populated districts has received the filth of thousands and tens of thousands of human beings, together with other various but equally disgusting additions, contributed by the trades and manufactures carried on along its banks. Thus, in the case of Birmingham, before mentioned, the river Tame supplies water for all purposes, including the drinking water of no less than fifty thousand people. The Thames, which at a high point is supposed to yield a supply of pure water to London, before it reaches the recently adopted point above the tidal influence, receives the sewage and drainage water of towns and villages containing more than seven hundred thousand inhabitants. In the great majority of these places little or nothing has yet been done with a view to an improvement of the public health, but looking at the rapid extension of drainage operations, it will readily be conceived that, in the absence of general measures to prevent the pollution of

rivers, the state of the Thames will soon become seriously affected, even by the sewage of these places alone.

That water so polluted is a fruitful source of disease we know, but setting aside the higher grounds upon which this state of things must be emphatically condemned, the very idea that any population should be compelled to resort to such sources for drinking water is revolting in the extreme. We are aware it is said that the evil is really much less than it seems; that there are natural causes at work, as the influence of the air, aquatic vegetation, fish, &c., which materially diminish the quantity of offensive matters thus mixed with the water. Granting that such causes may to a certain extent mitigate the evil, we still say that, as a matter of common sense and public decency, it is not to be tolerated that the sewage of one town shall flow through and still less be the water source of another.

It is evident, from what has already been said, that the evil to which we desire to call earnest attention is one that must be steadily progressive. If towns thickening in population and with increasing manufactures are to be thoroughly sewered, and in the course of time they will be thoroughly sewered; if the great bulk of their refuse is to be brought to some point in a river and there cast in, all idea of resorting to rivers for a supply of water must be abandoned, and then will these rivers become a curse instead of a blessing to the districts through which they flow. We must here be understood to speak of the usual position of towns. It is quite conceivable, and, indeed, cases in point are known to us, that a town may be so situated that the discharge of its sewage into a watercourse may not even remotely affect any other population; but in a country thickly studded with centres of population such cases are quite exceptional. Other evils of a less public but still important nature are caused by the pollution of watercourses by town sewage. Even in the absence of large towns within a moderate distance below the outfalls, many small villages or hamlets, and country residences, are situated on the banks of streams. When such streams are largely polluted by sewage the comfort and health of the inhabitants are interfered with, and the value of their properties greatly deteriorated. The destruction of fish is another, and in some places a very important, consequence of the conditions we have described. The salmon fisheries of Scotland and of Ireland not only represent a property of large annual value, but they form the occupation and livelihood of a very considerable population. Apprehensions are already entertained of serious injury by the daily increasing quantity of sewage thrown into the rivers, and efforts have been made with a view of arresting the evil. And that it can be arrested by means already within our reach is shown in the case of Leicester, where the river had become so bad that fish had entirely disappeared; but since the adoption of the process for neutralizing the offensive and noxious properties of the sewage discharged into the river, the fish, it is said, have returned to their old haunts. We have said that the evil of the present state of sewage outfalls, especially where new drainage works have been completed without any means of preventing the pollution of the streams, scarcely admits of exaggeration. It is acknowledged by all who have concerned themselves with the matter; but if any further proof were necessary it would be found in the records of our law courts. Within the last few years many suits at law have been entered against the authorities of different towns on account of injury alleged to be produced by outfalls of drainage. The results of these trials

present great anomalies, and have left the law on the subject in a very unsatisfactory state.

Another proof of the pressing necessity of action in the case of sewage is found in the fact that in as many as twelve towns in the United Kingdom works on a more or less extensive scale have been erected for the purpose either of applying sewage to land, or of treating it by chemical means so as to deprive it of its offensive character before allowing it to mix with the water of rivers. To some of these cases we shall have occasion presently to refer. We would now call attention to the worst feature in the whole case, namely, that the difficulty of dealing with sewage is in many places neutralizing, if not altogether suspending, the efforts of town populations to carry into effect improvements which are known to be so essential to public health and comfort. It is hardly reasonable to expect the authorities of a town to be very active or zealous in the application of the measures contemplated by the Public Health Act, when they foresee the possibility or almost the certainty of protracted litigation, entailing endless trouble and expense, to say nothing of the production of a nuisance and cause of disease in many instances to a portion of their own population.

Anxious, if possible, to find a remedy for these evils in an agricultural application of the refuse, which, whilst relieving town populations, should avoid the waste of a valuable material, we yet felt that the realization of the former object should not be at all contingent upon the success of the latter; and that whilst steadily keeping in view the ulterior purpose, and endeavouring as far as in us lay to smooth the way for a reproductive employment of so much confessedly valuable matter, our paramount duty was to make inquiry into the mode of dealing with sewage with a view to the removal of existing difficulties, and thus to fulfil the chief obligation laid upon us by the terms of our commission.

After some observations on the sewage works in Edinburgh and Rugby, the Commissioners arrived at the following conclusions:—

1st. That the increasing pollution of the rivers and streams of the country is an evil of national importance, which urgently demands the application of remedial measures; that the discharge of sewage and of the noxious refuse of factories into them is a source of nuisance and danger to health; that it acts injuriously not only on the locality where it occurs, but also on the population of the districts through which the polluted rivers flow; that it poisons the water, which in many cases forms the sole supply of the population for all purposes, including drinking; that it destroys the fish, and generally that it impairs the value and the natural advantages derived from rivers and streams of water.

2nd. That this evil has largely increased with the growing cleanliness and internal improvements of towns as regards water supply and drainage; that its increase will continue to be in direct proportion to such improvements; and that as these improvements are yet very partial, the nuisance of sewage, already very sensibly felt, is extremely slight as compared to what it will become when sewage and drainage works have been carried into full effect.

3rd. That in many towns measures for improved water supply and drainage are retarded, from the difficulties of disposing of the increased sewage which results from them; that the law which regulates the rights of outfall is in an anomalous and undefined condition; that judicial deci-

sions of a conflicting character have been arrived at in different instances, and that consequently the authorities of towns have constantly before them the fear of harassing litigation.

4th. That the methods which have been adopted with the view of dealing with sewage are of two kinds; the one being the application of the whole sewage to land, and the other, that of treating it by chemical processes, to separate its most offensive portions; that the direct application of sewage to land favourably situated, if judiciously carried out, and confined to a suitable area exclusively grass, is profitable to persons so employing it; that where the conditions are unfavourable, a small payment on the part of the local authorities will restore the balance.

5th. That this method of sewage application, conducted with moderate care, is not productive of nuisance or injury to health.

6th. That when circumstances prevent the disposal of sewage by direct application to land, the processes of precipitation will greatly ameliorate, and practically obviate, the evils of sewage outfalls, especially where there are large rivers for the discharge of the liquid; that such methods of treating sewage do not retain more than a comparatively small portion of the fertilizing matter, and that although in some cases the sale of the manure may repay the cost of production, they are not likely to be successful as private speculations.

7th. That considered merely as the means of mitigating a nuisance, these precipitating processes are satisfactory; that the cost of them in any case is such as town populations may reasonably be called upon to meet; that the necessary works need not, if properly conducted, be a source of nuisance; and that, by modifications of the existing methods, even the slightest risk of nuisance may be entirely obviated.

8th. That the employment of the one or other method of disposing of sewage, or of both conjoined, must depend upon locality, levels, markets, and a variety of other circumstances, and that the case of each town must be considered upon its own peculiarities.

9th. That there is good ground for believing that the methods yet proposed for dealing with sewage are not the best that can be devised, and that further investigation will probably result in the discovery of processes more thoroughly equal to the suppression of the nuisance, and at the same time calculated to give more valuable products.

10th. That the magnitude of a town presents no real difficulty to the effectual treatment of its sewage, provided it be considered as a collection of smaller towns.

The report contains an outline of a plan for dealing with the sewage of the metropolis, the substance of which is as follows:—

The proposition now submitted is to construct embankments, detached from the shore, in the form of advanced terraces, continuous on the surface, but affording at convenient distances entrances to the inner basins, on the principle recommended by the Commissioners of Metropolis Improvements, in their report of 1844. In the interior of these lengths of embankments a series of separate reservoirs would be formed, into which the whole of the sewers of the metropolis now discharging directly into the Thames would have their outfall. The solid matters would there be separated and precipitated, and the liquid treated with some deodorizing agent before discharge.

Intercepting sewers would cut off the whole of the high level drainage of the metropolis, now such a source of mischief to the low districts, and conduct it by gravitation to the reservoirs. Steam-engines on land would raise the sewage of the low levels to the same height. The reservoirs would each be subdivided, and the compartments would be used alternately, so that the sewage would remain at rest a sufficient length of time to deposit its suspended matter, the liquid being regularly discharged, except in times of flood, during ebb-tide, and below low-water level.

Engine power would be provided capable of raising into these terrace reservoirs, from the low level districts, the maximum flow of sewage together with rainfall at the rate of one inch in depth in twenty-four hours, but the capacity of the reservoirs would be sufficient to receive even a larger amount by gravitation from the high level urban districts, and to retain it long enough to ensure the separation of the immense quantities of offensive solid matter brought down from the sewers during heavy rains. It is rarely on more than two or three days in a year that a fall of rain exceeds the depth of an inch, and the excess which would be directly discharged from the sewers on such occasions would cause no appreciable pollution of the river.

The solid matters precipitated in the reservoirs would be pumped away in the form of sludge through pipes in connection with the whole of the reservoirs, and carried out to sea, if no opportunity should arise for the beneficial employment of this material. That this comparatively small proportion of the whole sewage of the metropolis may be profitably employed, however, upon extensive tracts of barren land especially fitted to receive manure in so convenient a form, there can be little doubt; for the heavy expenses of the precipitating and deodorizing works, and of transmission of the manure to the land, which, if such expense fell on the consumer, as before pointed out, would in all ordinary cases prevent any profitable return, would here have been already incurred on behalf of the public. The value of this sludge manure would be very great, and there would remain only to be deducted from that value the cost of arrangements on the land itself for distribution of the manure.

The objections which may possibly be raised against this scheme are, 1st, that the liquid discharged into the river will not be absolutely pure; and, 2ndly, that the precipitating reservoirs may themselves become a nuisance. On the first point it need only again be observed, that those who under any circumstances expect absolute purity of the Thames will certainly be disappointed; but that its comparative purity, that is, purity to the extent of freeing it from the offensive and injurious properties of the sewage of the metropolis, will be secured. With reference to the second point, it may be admitted that deodorizing establishments on a large scale and of the ordinary class, would at times generate a certain amount of nuisance, but the constructions here proposed are not of the nature of deodorizing establishments as usually understood or as usually conducted. It has already been stated that the nuisance of deodorizing works arises mainly from the exposure of the deposited matter, and from the processes necessary for its manufacture into a portable manure. Nothing of this sort would here take place. The reservoirs would be, in fact, detached lengths of large sewers, in which deposit would take place as in the tidal sewers now of Southwark and Westminster; but they would differ from these latter in being altogether free from the obnoxious odours which attach to

them. The sewage in these new sewers or reservoirs would be always deodorized; they would have no external openings in the shape of gullies for the emission of foul air, nor would offensive smells escape from them under any circumstances, and they would be at a distance from habitations, instead of being in the midst of and in immediate connection with them.

By dividing the metropolis into several large towns, as it were, with their separate outfalls, as here proposed, instead of attempting to deal with it as one unmanageable whole, much of the difficulty and expense of the undertaking is at once removed. The work becomes far less formidable in dimensions; the serious difficulty of construction, and the danger to buildings, consequent upon many miles of large sewer being laid in most treacherous ground, and below low-water mark, would be avoided; and a great extent of interruption of the traffic, and of alteration and reversal of the existing drainage of the low-level districts, would be rendered unnecessary. Lastly, while it is believed that this plan would effectually secure the purity of the river and the improvement of the metropolitan drainage without entailing any difficulties or inconveniences of its own, it would afford the means of realizing the greatest improvements in other respects of which the metropolis is susceptible. It is true that the consideration of such improvements is wholly beyond the province of the Sewage Commission, but it may be permitted them, in the interests of the public, simply to refer to the great collateral advantages which would naturally follow from the adoption of the means proposed for dealing with the sewage of the metropolis, which it is their especial duty to consider.

The improvement of the navigation and the means afforded for exercise and recreation by these river terraces to that large neighbouring population at a distance from either of the parks, and the general effect of these works in the adornment of the river, will be readily appreciated. At the same time, the northern line of terrace from Queenhithe to Westminster would supply a new east and west thoroughfare, direct and of ample width, so long desired for the relief of Cheapside, Ludgate Hill, Fleet Street, and the Strand. Connections between the existing thoroughfares and this new line would be conveniently formed, and for the accommodation of the central and northern parts of the City a short new street might be formed as indicated, rising from Earl Street to St. Paul's Cathedral. The southern line of embankment would also, at a small additional cost compared with so great a result, afford the opportunity for a metropolitan railway connection of great public convenience, giving a West-end station to the South-Eastern lines, and a City station to the South-Western lines. These improvements may appear to be on too gigantic a scale to allow of any hope of their realization. A liberal estimate, however, shows that, exclusive of the purchase of properties for the new lines of streets, and the working expenses of dealing with the sewage, they may be executed for three and a quarter millions sterling, and that the total cost for the whole scheme, including working expenses, and making allowance for any return, would fall far below the amount estimated as required for the works hitherto contemplated simply for conveying the sewage of the metropolis to the sea-beach.

No. LXII.—GENERAL BOARD OF HEALTH

*Report on the Microscopical Examination of the Metropolitan Water Supply,
by Arthur Hill Hassall, M.D.*

THE several waters were collected in Winchester quart bottles, by either Mr. Ransome or Mr. Cray, of the General Board of Health, in the presence of Dr. Hassall, and the following conclusions were deduced from their examination:—

1. That the waters supplied by the nine metropolitan water companies under the new Act for the improvement of the water supply of the metropolis, still contain considerable numbers of living vegetable and animal productions belonging to different orders, genera, and species, but especially to the orders or tribes *annelidæ*, *entomostraceæ*, *infusoriæ*, *confervæ*, *desmidiæ*, *diatomaceæ*, and *fungi*.

2. That these living organic productions were found to be particularly abundant in the waters supplied by the Southwark and Vauxhall, the Lambeth, the New River, and the Hampstead Companies.

3. That they were rather numerous in the waters of the Grand Junction Company.

4. That they were much less abundant in the waters of the Chelsea, West Middlesex, East London, and Kent Companies.

5. That those waters which contained most organic productions were cloudy and opalescent, as the waters of the Southwark and Vauxhall, the Lambeth, the New River, and the Hampstead Companies.

6. That the waters which contained fewer organic productions were clear and bright, as those of the Chelsea, the West Middlesex, the Grand Junction, the East London, and the Kent Companies.

7. That these differences in the condition and quality of the several waters examined resulted, probably, partly from differences in the methods of filtration adopted, and partly from the state of the sources from which the supplies were derived, occasioned by weather, rain, and frost. This last circumstance does not explain the whole of the variations observed; since, of the waters collected on the same day, some were bright and others cloudy and opalescent.

It follows that the metropolis is still supplied with water containing considerable numbers of living vegetable and animal productions, and which are not present in the purer waters, as, for example, that supplied by the Plumstead, Woolwich, and Charlton Company.

Contrasting these results with those obtained by the microscopical examinations of the waters supplied to the metropolis in 1854, that is, prior to the new Act coming into operation, great improvement is undoubtedly manifest in the condition of the present supplies, as shown by the colour and taste of the waters, as well as by the diminished number of organic productions contained in them.

It should be recollected, however, that the present examinations have been made in the midst of winter, that is, at the period most unfavourable to the development of animal and vegetable life; the water now supplied to the metropolis is, therefore, in the purest state of which, under the present arrangements, it is susceptible. It is obviously proper that fresh examinations of the waters of the several companies should be made in the spring,

summer, and autumn, in order that their conditions at those seasons might be determined.

A very excellent test by which the quality of water may frequently be judged of, is the colour presented by it; this can only be ascertained by viewing the water in bulk, that is, in a clear white glass bottle, or, better still, in a porcelain dish, holding about a gallon, some distilled or pure spring water being placed in a corresponding dish for comparison. If the water thus viewed present any decided tinge or coloration, it in general is not pure. Inspected in this manner, the waters of the whole of the companies examined presented a very marked yellowish green coloration, which became more obvious as the water was concentrated by evaporation.

No. LXIII.—LUNATIC ASYLUMS.

Return of Lunatic Asylums in England and Wales, with Date of Establishment, &c.; also Return of the Number of Licensed Houses in England and Wales for the Care of the Lunatics, Number of Patients on the 1st of January, 1858, with the Amount of Land attached to each, and how appropriated. (Mr. Alcock.) 19th and 21st April, 1858. (299.)

THIS return comprises particulars of thirty-eight lunatic asylums in England and Wales, capable of accommodating 15,000 patients. The expense of maintenance, medicines, and clothing of pauper patients, during 1857, averaged 18*l.* to 25*l.* per head. The recoveries amounted to from 5 to 20 per cent. There were, moreover, 113 licensed houses, having on the 1st of January, 1858, 2,647 lunatics, of whom 1,497 were private, and 1,150 paupers.

No. LXIV.—ENCLOSURE COMMISSION.

Thirteenth Annual Report of the Enclosure Commissioners.

THE number of applications of all kinds, since the passing of the Act, has been 2,351. The number of cases since the last annual report was 322, of which 37 were enclosures, 272 exchanges, 7 partitions, and 6 sundries. The acreage of enclosures confirmed was 226,010 acres, and the acreage of enclosures in progress was 262,418 acres. The average expense of the enclosure proceedings up to the time of the assents to the provisional orders, including every expense which may have attended these assents, and which leave the case ready for Parliament to deal with, was 16*l.* 12*s.* 2*d.*

No. LXV.—TURNPIKE TRUSTS.

General Report of Turnpike Trusts for England and Wales.

THE financial condition of the turnpike trusts generally shows a continued improvement, notwithstanding a more than ordinary diminution of the revenue derived from tolls during the year. The receipts of the trusts in England and North Wales amounted in 1837 to 1,699,428*l.*, and in 1855

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to 1,102,646*l*. The expenditure in 1837 was 1,742,237*l*., and in 1855, 1,105,482*l*. The bonded debt in 1837 was 7,011,989*l*., and in 1855, 5,367,810*l*. The unpaid interest in 1837 was 1,019,568*l*., and in 1855, 756,154*l*. In 1855 there were 127 trusts, with an income of 164,947*l*., which had no debt; and 983 trusts which had an income of 874,528*l*., which had a debt of 5,367,810*l*. In South Wales, in 1855, the receipts amounted to 37,218*l*., and the expenditure to 36,796*l*. The debts charged upon the South Wales' turnpike trusts, at the close of the year 1855, amounted to 218,220*l*.

No. LXVL—METROPOLITAN TURNPIKE TRUSTS.

Return showing in detail the Turnpike Trusts, any portion of which are within Six Miles of Charing Cross; the Acts of Parliament under which they exist, &c. (Mr. Byng.) 16th February, 1858. (364.)

THE Bermondsey, Rotherhithe, and Deptford Roads trust, about 10 miles, has 7 gates and 8 bars. The Commercial Road trust has 8 gates, 10 bars at which toll is collected, and 31 at which toll is not collected. It has 3 miles and 7 furlongs within the 6 miles radius. The Great Dover Street turnpike trust has one gate; the mileage of road is 2,340 feet. The Greenwich and Woolwich turnpike lower road trust has no part within the prescribed limits of 6 miles. The Highgate Archway Company has 2 gates and bars, but one of such gates is only used occasionally. The road is nearly one mile and three-quarters in length. The Highgate and Whetstone turnpike road trust is 6 miles 6 furlongs and 99 yards from Charing Cross; it has 2 toll-gates. The Archway and Kentish Town Junction Road trust has one gate and 2 bars, with chain; it has one mile within the 6 miles of radius. The Marylebone and Finchley Road, New North Road, and Metropolis road trust has 31 gates within the radius, 9 beyond the radius. It has 66 bars within the radius, and 2 beyond the radius; it has 67 miles within the radius, and 61 miles beyond the radius. The Middlesex and Essex turnpike roads trust has 8 toll-gates and 2 bars on the 31½ miles of road, and 2 toll-gates and 2 bars in the county of Middlesex, west of Bow Bridge. The New Cross turnpike roads, in the counties of Kent and Surrey, have 3 gates and 2 side bars, and the mileage of road is 7 miles. The Surrey and Sussex roads trust has 16 gates and 13 bars, and the mileage of road is 59 miles.

XCVI.—STADE TOLLS.

Report from the Select Committee appointed to inquire into the Origin of the Claim of the Government of Hanover to levy the Stade Tolls; to consider in what degree they are detrimental to the Commerce of the United Kingdom; and the effect of giving notice to determine the Treaty under which this Country has assented to the payment of such Tolls for a limited Period. (429.)

THE Committee was appointed on the 28th April, 1858, and it consisted of Mr. Henley, Sir James Graham, Lord Ashley, Mr. Ricardo, Mr. Milner Gibson, Mr. Cardwell, Mr. Seymour Fitz-Gerald, Mr. Bright, Mr. Grogan, Mr. Blackburn, Mr. Bentinck, Mr. Villiers, Mr. Hutt, Mr. Fenwich, and Mr. Bowyer.

The Committee examined Professor C. F. Wurm, Professor of History at Hamburg; Mr. John Hargreaves, private secretary to her Majesty's Consul-General at Hamburg; Mr. Richard Glover, merchant, Hull; Mr. August Sanders, merchant, Hamburg; Mr. John Ward, her Majesty's Consul at Leipsic; Mr. Martin Pratt, Secretary to the General Steam Navigation Company; Mr. Nicholas Wood, President of the Institution of Mining Engineers; and Sir James Emerson Tennent, Secretary of the Board of Trade. The Committee sat eight days and reported as follows:—

That the foundation of the claim of Hanover to levy the Stade toll was a treaty with Denmark in 1717 A.D., and a further treaty with Sweden in 1719, by which, whatever right those countries possessed was transferred to the Elector of Hanover.

That the proportion of Stade toll to freight in British ships from Hull to Hamburg is, at the present time, on a bale of spun silk, 115 per cent.; on a bale of cotton goods, 142 per cent.; and on a bale of woollen yarn, 36 per cent. That the average annual amount of Stade tolls levied on cargoes, under the British flag, has risen from 3*l.* 10*s.* per 100 tons British in 1847, to 4*l.* 6*s.* 4*d.* in 1855.

That the increase on British tonnage entering the port of Hamburg has been 102 per cent. since 1849, while the increase on Hamburg tonnage has been 248 per cent. since 1849; and the foreign tonnage, exclusive of British and Hamburg, entering the port of Hamburg, has, during the same period, increased 99 per cent.

That the Stade toll is injurious to the trade and shipping of the United Kingdom.

That the tax is specially prejudicial to the part of our produce and trade which has to compete in foreign markets with similar articles not subject to the tax, and this is felt sensibly in the coal trade, and particularly in the export of the less valuable descriptions of coal.

• That goods, the property of Hamburg citizens, and carried in Hamburg ships, are exempt from the Stade tolls, and British ships are thereby exposed to an unfair competition.

That the general trade to Hamburg, notwithstanding the discouragement occasioned by the tax, has more than doubled within the last ten years.

That the trade to Harburg, which is free from Stade toll, has risen in

a still more striking ratio; that of Bremen (the Elsfleth toll, on the Weser, having ceased) and that of Stettin (the Sound dues having been abolished) have also increased in a very large proportion.

That the Stade toll differs from the Sound dues, inasmuch as the Sound dues were a tax charged not only upon articles of export, but also on articles of general use imported into the United Kingdom; but the Stade toll is levied on exports from and not on imports into the United Kingdom.

That it does not appear that any service whatever is rendered by Hanover in return for the tax levied upon the commerce of Great Britain.

That if the treaty of 1844, by which the United Kingdom is bound for a limited period to assent to the payment of the Stade toll, were determined by notice pursuant to the terms thereof, but little injury or inconvenience would arise to the trade of this country.

That it is expedient that notice should be given to terminate the treaty of 1844 with Hanover.

The following items are gathered from the evidence:—

Amount of the Tolls.—Independently of coals, the tolls average about $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. on the value; upon coals it amounts to $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. About 36,000*l.* a year is derived from the tolls on goods landed at Hamburg, or about 40,000*l.* including the amount received at Altona. Mr. Hargreaves stated that the treaty of 1844 with Hanover was concluded with a view to lessen the burden imposed by the Stade tolls on British trade and shipping, but such expectations have not been realized. Prior to the tariff of 1844, and during the five years from 1839 to 1843, Great Britain paid 45 per cent.; since the tariff of 1844, and during the five years, 1846 to 1852, Great Britain paid 52 per cent. During the five years, 1851 to 1855, she paid 57 per cent. Holland paid in 1839 11 per cent.; in 1846, 10 per cent.; in 1855, 7 per cent. The South of Europe and the Levant paid 10 per cent. in 1839; 11 per cent. in 1846; and 8 per cent. in 1855. The other European countries paid 6-10ths per cent. in 1839; 7-10ths per cent. in 1850; and 8-10ths per cent. in 1855. The United States and other Trans-Atlantic countries paid 29 per cent. in 1839; 23 per cent. in 1850; and 24 per cent. in 1855. The dues levied on British cargoes shipped during the five years from 1839 to 1843 amounted to 71,000*l.* From 1846 to 1850, 67,600*l.*; and from 1851 to 1855, they amounted to 91,000*l.* The relation of the dues upon the value of certain articles was stated by Mr. Glover as follows:—The value per 100 lbs. weight, in Russian dollars, on coal for instance, is one-third of a dollar. The rate of Stade toll per 100 lbs. weight in groschen is 1-12th; showing the percentage of the toll on the value to be 1.04. On raw iron, the value per 100 lbs. weight, in Russian dollars, is $1\frac{1}{2}$. The rate of Stade toll per 100 lbs. in groschen is 1-12th; showing the percentage of the toll upon the value to be 0.23. On salt, the value per 100 lbs. of weight, in Russian dollars, is 13-24ths of a dollar. The rate of Stade toll per 100 lbs. weight is 1-12th of a dollar; showing a percentage of the toll upon the value

to be 0·64. On smalts, the value per 100 lbs. weight, in Russian dollars, is 15 7-12ths of a dollar. The rate of Stade toll per 100 lbs. weight in groschen is 5 dollars, and the percentage of the toll upon the value is 1·33. The relation of the toll to freight was stated to be as follows:—On 58 bales and 15 cases of cotton goods shipped from Hull in 1855, the amount of freight in marco banco would be 158 9-16ths; the amount of the toll, 201½: showing the percentage proportion of the toll to the freight to be 128 per cent. On 28 bales and 5 cases of woollen goods, the amount of freight in M. B. is 59 7-16ths; the amount of toll, 57½: showing the percentage proportion of toll to the freight to be 96·6. On 5 casks of drugs, the amount of freight in M. B. is 18 9-16ths; the amount of toll, 12½; the percentage proportion of toll to the freight being 66·7. On 2 cases of cotton and silk goods, the amount of freight in M. B. is 2; and the amount of toll, 3½: showing the percentage proportion of the toll to the freight to be 168·7. In other articles, the proportion is even greater, and the average proportion is about 51 per cent. upon the freight. On the average of the articles imported from England, exclusive of coals, the percentage of the tolls is about 2-9ths per cent.

Title of Hanover.—Upon the origin of the claim of Hanover, Professor C. F. Wurm gave the following evidence:—The first document giving any right to levy such dues is a grant, by Conrad II., German Emperor, 1308, to the then Archbishop of Hamburg and Bremen, as a remedy for the state of his soul, and at the intercession of his wife Gisela, the Empress, and his son Henry. By this grant, the Emperor gave to the Archbishop the right of having a market in a place called Stade; of levying telonium, which is a custom. It was a market toll, afterwards converted, or perverted rather, into a passage duty. It appears that a great part of the city of Hamburg had been burnt down by the Sclavonians and by the Normans, and the cathedral had been consumed. They had attempted to rebuild it, and had done it in wood, because they had not money enough to do it in stone. So it happened that the Empress Gisela took a journey to Bremen, and her object in granting such a right to custom, was to have the cathedral rebuilt in stone. In the course of many centuries the Stade due has changed masters three or four times. The Archbishopric of Bremen has been secularized, so that the Stade dues have not for centuries been appropriated to the purposes for which they were designed. If the legal claim, so far as it exists, is based upon this document, the first question is, Had the Emperor a right to grant a passage due? At first, no doubt, he had such a right; but Charles V. felt himself bound to ask the consent of the Electors. The present family of Hanover came into possession of these dues by a good many intermediate steps. After the Archbishopric was secularized, the toll was transferred to Sweden in the peace of Westphalia, in satisfaction for all her expenses in conducting the Thirty Years' War. The principles laid down in the Westphalian peace in 1648 were the forerunners of the principles of Vienna. It was decided that the duties or tolls which had been levied

during the war were to be taken off, and the navigation restored to its former state. The previous tariff of tolls is dated 1613. The tariff was very simple. The principle was one-sixteenth per cent., that is, the sixteenth part of a mark or a shilling currency, about 1*d.* upon every 100 marks, *ad valorem*. Subsequently, Denmark conquered the Duchies of Bremen and Wesden from Sweden; and, in 1715, George I. purchased it for 300,000 dollars; and in 1819, the same was formally ceded to Hanover. Therefore, whatever right the King of Sweden had legally acquired as to the Stade dues, was legally transferred to the King of Great Britain, as Elector of Brunswick Luneburg; but this gave only a right to levy no more than what had been settled in 1692, and that was one-sixteenth *ad valorem* duty upon all articles. At the Congress of Vienna of 1815, it was decided by the 109th Art. that the navigation of all the navigable rivers of Germany shall be free. Hanover, however, asserted that this was a maritime tax, and not a river tax. At the first and second meeting of the Elbe-bordering States, Hanover adhered to that; but at the meeting in 1842, she declared herself ready to treat upon the subject with each individual state. A committee of mediation was then proposed between Hanover on the one side, and Hamburg and Denmark on the other; and afterwards, in 1844, the treaty was concluded. That treaty stipulated that either party at the expiration of ten years may terminate the treaty by giving one year's notice; and were notice given, England will be in exactly the same position in which the other not privileged nations are standing. Sir James Emerson Tennent was extremely doubtful whether Hanover was entitled to any compensation for the abolition of the Stade tolls, and he believed that until this country created a temporary title for Hanover, by the treaty of 1844, no right existed upon her part which could now be enforced against us, and the fact of having paid the dues so long should not prevent us from disputing the legality of the title.

Abrogation of Treaty.—Professor Wurm was of opinion that if the treaty of 1844 were brought to a termination, Hanover would probably try to revert to the tariff of 1821, or rather, in the opinion of Mr. Hargreaves, to the tariff of 1844, made with the Elbe-bordering States, and England would have to pay full dues again. English manufactured goods, which now pay only 2-3rds of the toll, would pay the full toll; and the Elbe-bordering States, who now by concession enjoy the same exemption as England, would then have to pay the full dues. In the opinion of Mr. Hargreaves, however, if the treaty of 1844 were abrogated, England would not be legally bound by the convention of Dresden, which dealt with the toll as a river toll. Sir James E. Tennent, on the contrary, believed that if the treaty were abolished, England would be in a position to raise the question of the title of Hanover.

Redemption of Toll.—Hanover would readily give up the toll if purchased; Hamburg also would pay its share, and other Governments would feel obliged to do likewise. The Government of Hamburg had made some

calculations for capitalizing the dues, upon the principles adopted in the case of the Sound dues. This calculation makes the total sum required to capitalize them at 4 per cent., 447,593*l*. Of that sum, with the deduction of 38 per cent. for all abuses and overcharges, the share to be paid by Great Britain would be 227,451*l*. Sir James E. Tennent was of opinion that if compensation be given, Great Britain has no right to pay upon a higher basis than one-sixteenth per cent.

Hamburg.—About 2,000 British vessels entered the port of Hamburg in 1857, from England. Hamburg now pays about 19 per cent. of the toll, and is the largest contributor next to Great Britain. The Hamburg authorities do not place a British ship in a worse position than any other ship. It is a Hanoverian imposition which is put upon the British ships and not put upon the Hamburg ships; in consequence of which Hamburg ships have increased considerably within the last few years. The imports into Hamburg from Great Britain were calculated at 10,000,000*l*. But in the opinion of Sir James E. Tennent, the trade of Hamburg is far more affected by the tolls than the trade of Great Britain. Notwithstanding the tolls, the exports of British produce and manufactures, from the United Kingdom to the Hanse Towns, have increased from 5,598,511*l*. in 1841, to 11,244,466*l*. in 1857; and of foreign and colonial produce, from 2,853,043*l*. in 1854, to 3,887,039*l*. in 1857. So the imports at Hamburg from Great Britain have increased from 7,035,955*l*. in 1845, to 13,062,417*l*. in 1856. The returns of the shipping for the United Kingdom present the same results. In 1853, the number of vessels that cleared out from the Hanseatic ports was 1,364; in 1856 there were 1,934, and the tonnage increased from 333,000 tons, to 495,900 tons. The present movements against the Stade tolls must have originated at Hamburg. They must necessarily have been rendered uneasy by the growing trade of Harburg, which is within seven miles of her. Hamburg cannot see without jealousy a new port receiving annually 1,000 laden ships, of which it is supposed that a portion at least might have gone to her.

Harburg.—Since 1850, the toll has been levied upon all vessels which do not discharge their goods at Harburg, instead of upon all vessels going to the Elbe; vessels of all nations are alike exempt if they discharge at Harburg. There is, however, some expense in unloading at Harburg, on account of the river being shallow, which is not necessary at Hamburg. The trade of Harburg has much increased of late, but small vessels only can go there. Hanover has a legal right to exempt Harburg from dues. The exemption of cargoes landing at Harburg, acts as a grievance towards British shipping on account of the low draught of water preventing British ships from going thither. The trade with Harburg is now entirely in the hands of Hanover shipowners, who have built special ships for the purpose. The steamers employed in the Hamburg trade cannot go to Harburg in consequence of the draught of water; many of them being paddle steamers, the width of the gates at the dock not admitting of a large class

of steamers. The opening of Harburg is, however, an advantage to the direct trade with Hamburg. Goods intended for Hamburg may be sent to Harburg, and in consequence of the saving of the tolls, gain 4*d.* per cwt. by having them lightered to Hamburg. But if it be an advantage to the merchant to save 4*d.* per cwt., it is an injury to the shipowner who has vessels of a particular class or width. The British trade with Harburg has increased as follows:—In 1850, the number of British vessels with cargo arriving at Harburg was 6, and the total of British and foreign, 152. In 1851, the British vessels were 15; total, British and foreign, 335. In 1852, British vessels, 42; total, British and foreign, 691. In 1853, British vessels, 68; total, British and foreign, 844. In 1854, British vessels, 129; total, British and foreign, 1,032. In 1855, British vessels, 106; total, British and foreign, 1,118. In 1856, British vessels, 650; total, British and foreign, 1,114. In 1857, British vessels, 710. There are many disadvantages connected with the port of Harburg that will ever hinder it from becoming of importance to British commerce. There is, first, the impossibility for ships of deep draught of water to reach that port; secondly, the inconvenience of the cumbrous custom-house laws of the Zollverein met with at Harburg, in comparison with the well-known liberal treatment in Hamburg. Thirdly, the unfavourable geographical position of Harburg in comparison with Hamburg, which latter naturally always will be, according to its situation on the northern bank of the river, the central point of the whole North. Fourthly, the difficulty in obtaining return freights from Harburg to England, which would oblige the captains to go to Hamburg to get goods for their home voyage. Yet there are great facilities at Harburg for sending goods to central Germany. Harburg is the natural port for supplying that portion of the Zollverein which lies at the south bank of the Elbe.

XCIV.—SHIPPING.

Return of British Ships employed in the Trade of the United Kingdom in the Years 1853 to 1857, and of the number of Men actually employed in them.
18th March, 1858. (139.)

IN 1853, there were employed of British registered vessels as home trade ships, 8,477 sailing vessels, 689,342 tons, and 36,051 men; 374 steam-vessels, 85,471 tons, and 6,689 men. Partly as home trade ships, and partly as foreign going ships, 970 sailing vessels, 156,800 tons, and 7,134 men; and 28 steam vessels, 7,250 tons, and 560 men. Solely as foreign going ships, 8,120 sailing vessels, 2,665,685 tons, and 111,821 men; and 237 steam vessels, 125,539 tons, and 10,270 men. Giving an aggregate in 1853, of 17,567 sailing vessels, 3,511,827 tons, and 155,006 men; and 639 steam vessels, 218,260 tons, and 17,519 men; or total sailing and steam vessels, 18,206, 3,730,087 tons, and 172,525 men.

In 1857 there were employed of British registered vessels as home trade

ships, 9,676 sailing vessels, 767,925 tons, and 37,138 men; 388 steam-vessels, 92,481 tons, and 6,462 men. Partly as home trade ships, and partly as foreign going ships, 1,008 sailing vessels, 162,112 tons, 7,007 men; and 66 steam-vessels, 20,859 tons, and 1,200 men. As foreign going ships, 7,655 sailing vessels, 2,900,082 tons, 107,289 men; and 445 steam vessels, 268,023 tons, 17,291 men. Giving an aggregate in 1857, of 18,429 sailing vessels, 3,830,119 tons, 151,434 men; and 899 steam vessels, 381,363 tons, 24,953 men: or, total sailing and steam vessels, 19,328 vessels, 4,211,482 tons, 176,387 men.

Home trade ships are ships trading on the coasts of the United Kingdom or to ports within the limits of the river Elbe and Brest; foreign-going ships are ships trading beyond those limits.

XCVIII.—VESSELS, TONNAGE, &c.

A Return showing the Number of Vessels and Tonnage entered inwards and outwards at each of the Twelve principal Ports of the United Kingdom; also the Official Value of Imports and Exports for each of the said Ports during the Year 1857. (Mr. Horsfall.) 6th May, 1858. (276.)

	ENTERED INWARDS.		CLEARED OUTWARDS.		Declared Value of British and Irish Produce exported.
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	
London	10,759	2,834,107	7,846	2,143,884	£ 27,832,348
Liverpool	4,528	2,392,928	5,003	2,535,952	55,257,624
Hull	2,947	633,547	2,435	534,476	15,758,813
Bristol	707	190,339	335	102,955	760,729
Newcastle	4,644	781,654	7,835	1,441,050	2,145,396
Southampton	934	322,179	930	334,809	2,065,045
Leith	1,382	204,590	475	96,767	830,532
Glasgow	515	145,228	908	261,053	5,103,318
Greenock	308	139,455	172	89,354	502,899
Dublin	390	83,271	132	35,913	38,799
Cork	367	91,075	128	26,061	176,560
Belfast	274	67,684	108	29,750	32,897
Total	27,755	7,893,057	26,307	7,632,024	110,504,960

XCIX.—HARBOURS OF REFUGE.

Detailed Statement relative to the Harbours of Refuge of Dover, Alderney, and Portland, together with the Quarterly Reports of the Engineers, for the Year ending 31st March, 1858. (Mr. Hamilton.) 6th May, 1858. (262.)

For the Harbour at Dover the total estimate was 630,000*l.*; the total amount of votes was 346,000*l.*; 34,000*l.* more was required for 1858-59, and 270,000*l.* to complete the works. For the Harbour of Alderney the total estimate was 1,300,000*l.* The total amount of votes was 662,000*l.* For 1858-59, the vote required was 60,000*l.*, and 578,000*l.* more was wanted to complete the work. For the Harbour at Jersey the total estimate was 700,000*l.*; the total amount of votes was 305,000*l.* Owing to the

suspension of the work no vote was required for 1858-59; but 395,000*l.* was required to complete the works. For the Portland Harbour the total estimate was 932,125*l.*; and the total amount of votes was 637,000*l.* For 1858-59 the amount required was 76,000*l.*, and 119,123*l.* more was wanted to complete the works.

C.—METROPOLIS ROADS (NORTH OF THAMES).

Returns relative to Metropolis Roads North of the Thames. (Mr. Byng.)
16th February, 1858. (140.)

THE total sum of tolls received for the year ending 25th March, 1857, was 62,535*l.*, and the total expenditure 64,878*l.* The tolls of the several districts were submitted to public competition at the usual period of last year, but two only of the lots were then let, the remainder being put up to auction a second time in the month of June. At this meeting the competition for some of the lots was considerable; the whole of them were let, and the result of the two lettings was, that the tolls produced 2,340*l.* more than they had realized during the previous twelve months. The tolls on the New North Road were also let for 960*l.*, and those on the Marylebone and Finchley Roads for 1,700*l.*, being an increase respectively of 240*l.* and 150*l.* on the previous lettings. In consequence of the evasion of the Harrow Road gate by the passage of vehicles through Kensall New Town, the commissioners have been obliged to erect a new gate on that road beyond the cemetery. A similar evasion has compelled them to remove the Dalston Lane gate to another position, and to erect a side bar to protect it. On the other hand, they have been able to dispense with, and remove altogether the side bar across the end of Gipse Lane, in the 13th (Green Lanes) district. In conformity with the 14th clause of the Marylebone and Finchley Roads Extension Act, 1850, the Commissioners, on the 1st May last, paid off 1,050*l.* of the bonds secured on the tolls of those roads, with the sum of 598*l.* 10*s.*, thus reducing the bonded debt to 27,341*l.* 14*s.* 4*d.* The receipts from tolls during the past year, exclusive of those on the Marylebone and Finchley and New North Roads, have amounted to 59,024*l.* 19*s.* 2*d.*, and the receipts from all sources to 63,422*l.* 7*s.* 1*d.*, while the expenditure during the same period has been 61,136*l.* 0*s.* 6*d.*, showing an excess of income over expenditure of 2,286*l.* 6*s.* 7*d.* In consequence of a very large increase of omnibus traffic between Shoreditch and Kingsland Gate, that part of the Stamford Hill Road has become much worn during the last few months; but all the other roads are in their usual good condition. All the liabilities of the Commissioners to 1st February last have been paid, and the estimated amount of their present floating debt (which comprises the expenditure on the roads since that date) is about 8,000*l.* The total receipt for the year ending the 25th March, 1858, was 65,482*l.*, and the expenditure 61,136*l.* The balance in hand was, cash, 4,346*l.*, and Exchequer Bills purchased for 10,264*l.*

CL.—HARBOURS OF REFUGE.

Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons appointed to inquire into the Policy of making further grants of public money for the improvement and extension of Harbours of Refuge. (344.)

THE Committee was appointed on the 9th February, 1858, and it consisted of Mr. Wilson, Mr. Lowe, Mr. Baring, Lord Naas, Lord Adolphus Vane Tempest, Mr. Kendall, Mr. Liddell, Sir Frederick Smith, Mr. Philips, Mr. Hassard, Mr. Augustus Smith, Sir Robert Ferguson, Mr. John Henry Gurney, Mr. Traill, Mr. Duff, Mr. Fergus, Mr. Dodson, Mr. Clay, Mr. Joseph Ewart, and Mr. Macartney. Admiral Duncombe, Sir James Elphinstone and Lord John Hay were subsequently added to the Committee, and Mr. Duff was discharged from further attendance.

The Committee sat twelve days, and examined the following witnesses, viz.—Mr. David Stevenson, C.E.; Captain James Henderson, R.N.; Colonel R. C. Moody, R.N.; Lieut. C. J. Cerjat; Rear-Admiral Sir James Clark Ross; Mr. John Coode, C.E.; Mr. Mark Clarke, Master Mariner; Henry Coston, Master Mariner; Captain W. L. Sheringham, R.N.; Mr. Thomas Roundell Forward, Commander of the *Sylvia*; Mr. John Dyer Bryant of Padston; Mr. Joseph Samson, Master Mariner; Captain Christopher Claxton, R.N.; Mr. Thomas B. Chanter, Lloyd's Agent; Mr. Robert Winder, Mr. Thomas R. Winder, R.E.; Mr. James Abernethy, C.E.; Rear-Admiral Sir Henry Shiffner, Mr. Thomas Lowery, Trinity House Pilot; Sir John Burgoyne; Rear-Admiral George Evans, Conservator of the Mersey; Sir James Dombrain, Captain William Cumming, Captain James M'Kellar, Mr. Barry, D. Gibbons, Engineer; Mr. William Dargan, Mr. James Walker, C.E.; Mr. Edward Best, Master Mariner; Mr. Joseph Thomson, Master Mariner; Mr. William Hamilton, Commander; Sir Samuel Morton Peto, M.P.; Mr. David James, Surveyor for Lloyd's; Mr. George Bowen, Master; Captain John Harries, Captain Christopher Claxton, R.N.; Captain John Drew, Mr. Robert Gething, Harbour Master; Captain James Vetch, Captain John Williams, Mr. William B. Hayes.

The Committee was originally appointed in the Session of 1857; and the substance of the evidence then obtained has already appeared in the "Annals." In June 1858, the Committee agreed to the following report:—

Your Committee has not thought it necessary to take any evidence as to the great and increasing extent of the shipping interests which are involved in the inquiry entrusted to it, inasmuch as there is an abundance of documents already before the House which sufficiently illustrate those points, but to which it may not be out of place to refer as bearing upon the observations which your Committee has thought it its duty to make. In the "Statistical Abstract" laid before Parliament in the present Session, at pages 30 and 31, accounts are given of the progress of the shipping of the United Kingdom for a series of years. From these accounts it appears

that in 1843, only 15 years ago, the entire amount of British shipping which entered into and cleared from the ports of the United Kingdom was 7,181,179 tons, and of Foreign, 2,643,383 tons, making together an aggregate tonnage of 9,824,562 tons; but that so rapidly has the shipping trade of the country increased in the interval, that in 1857 the quantity of British tonnage entered into and cleared from the ports of the United Kingdom had increased to 13,694,107 tons, and the Foreign shipping to 9,484,685 tons, making an aggregate quantity of no less than 23,178,782 tons, being an increase of 13,394,230 tons, or of one hundred and thirty-six per cent. in 14 years. Again, the same Returns show, that while in the year 1843 the tonnage of sailing and steamships built and registered in the United Kingdom amounted only to 83,097 tons, in 1857 it had increased to 250,472 tons; and lastly, it appears that while the entire number of men (exclusive of masters) employed in the registered vessels of the United Kingdom in the Home and Foreign trade, not including river steamers, in 1849 was 152,611, that number had increased in 1857 to 176,387 persons. Your Committee would remark, that the progress in our shipping thus referred to; however great it may appear, has continued steadily from year to year, which would seem to indicate that it is destined to go on at about the same rate. The importance which your Committee attaches to the remarkable facts which these returns disclose, in connection with the subject of its inquiry, is derived from a consideration, first, of the great extent of the property and life thus shown to be at stake, and next, from its rapid increase; for it must be obvious, on the one hand, that it is in proportion to the amount of the stake that an effort should be made on public grounds to afford the greatest possible security to our shipping, while it must be equally plain, on the other hand, that the more crowded the waters around our shores become by increased traffic, the greater must be the risk of accidents from collision and otherwise, and the more urgent must be the necessity for greater accommodation, and provision for safety. The practical conclusion which Your Committee derives from these considerations is, that however much it may appear that Harbours of Refuge are now required for the security of our shipping, it is a want which must become more and more urgent from year to year. And moreover, that inasmuch as the construction of such harbours must necessarily occupy many years, it is of the utmost importance that no time shall be lost, first, in determining upon some national policy in relation to them, and next, in giving practical effect thereto.

In order that the House may the better see the extent to which losses and damage are sustained by casualties at sea, the Committee has caused to be inserted in the Appendix to the Report of 1857, a wreck chart for the five years 1852 to 1856, both inclusive, compiled from the Admiralty and Board of Trade Returns, and submitted to the Committee by the Hydrographer of the Admiralty. By referring to that map, and to the evidence of Captain Washington, it will be seen that the number of ascertained casualties in those years amounted to 5,128, being an average of 1,025 a year. These casualties consisted of—Total losses by stranding or otherwise 1,940; Total losses by collisions, 244; Serious damage, having to discharge, 2,401; Collisions with serious damage, 543; Total, 5,128.

The total ascertained losses from all causes, therefore, amounted to 2,184 vessels, or at the average of nearly 437 in each year. The total

reported loss of life connected with these casualties, was 4,148 persons, or upon an average of five years, nearly 830 in each year. In 1854, the loss of life amounted to no fewer than 1,549 persons. The value of the property lost by total wrecks, is estimated by Captain Washington at 1,000,000*l.* a year at least, and by other losses and casualties at 500,000*l.*, making together 1,500,000*l.* as the annual loss to the country from these casualties on our coasts. Captain Sullivan considers this a very low estimate, and would place it higher. Your Committee is disposed to adopt it, as at least not being an exaggeration of the truth. It may, therefore, be fairly stated that under present circumstances, the ascertained average loss upon the coasts of the United Kingdom amounts annually, to 830 human lives, and property to the value of 1,500,000*l.*; and this is independent of the numerous and serious losses both of life and property connected with the fisheries on the coasts.

In conducting the inquiry referred to it, your Committee has endeavoured to keep strictly in view the distinction between harbours constructed and required for the trade of particular ports, and harbours of refuge applicable to the general trade of the country, foreign as well as coasting, frequenting or passing particular parts of the coast. The former it has not considered strictly within the scope of its inquiry, although some evidence has been taken upon that class of harbours, when it was considered to bear, in some degree, less or more upon the question of refuge: your Committee will make some observations upon such harbours in a subsequent part of this Report. But it has been mainly to the latter, viz., harbours of refuge upon such parts of the coast, as being much frequented, are without any adequate place of safety into which vessels can run if overtaken by storms, that its attention has been directed. In this, the chief part of its duties, your Committee has found that its labours have been much abridged by the happy circumstance, that already considerable portions of our coasts are furnished with natural harbours of refuge; so that it has found it compatible with a discharge of its duties to confine its attention chiefly to a few important points. Along the whole of the west and north coasts of Scotland it has been shown that numerous and excellent natural harbours exist. For a portion of the east coast of Scotland, the Frith of Forth forms an excellent place of refuge. On the east coast of England, the Humber, the Wash, the Yarmouth Roads and the Thames afford, in different degrees, places of security. Between the Thames and the Land's End, extensive harbours are being constructed at Dover and Portland, in compliance with the recommendation of the Royal Commissioners of 1837 and 1844; excellent harbours already exist at Plymouth and Falmouth; and good shelter is found on other parts of that coast. Between the Land's End and the Solway some shelter is afforded in the Bristol Channel, and in the natural harbours on the Welsh coast; a large harbour is also being constructed at Holyhead, which has already, even in its incomplete and unfinished state, proved of great advantage to the extensive trade of that part of the kingdom. The coast of Ireland is well furnished with natural harbours, though works to a comparatively limited extent are required in order to render some of them in the most important localities more available for national purposes.

The most dangerous portions of the coast, where works of a national character are necessary and practicable, following the order in which the evidence has been taken, are, first, that part of the east coast of Scotland

extending from the Pentland Firth, on the north, to the Firth of Forth, on the south; second, that part of the east coast of England extending from the Fern Islands, on the north, to Flamborough Head, on the south; third, that portion of the west coast of England extending from the Land's End to the south coast of Wales, and including the Bristol Channel; fourth, the points on the coast of Ireland to which reference has already been made, and one point in the Isle of Man. Independent of the three great works now in progress at Holyhead, Portland, and Dover, these constitute the works which your Committee is of opinion are most urgently required.

The East Coast of Scotland.—Between the Pentland Firth, on the north-east extremity of the coast of Scotland, and the Firth of Forth, on the south, there is no harbour for the shelter of vessels caught in storms except Cromarty Frith, and that is so deeply imbedded in the bay as to be practically unavailable for the great bulk of the shipping passing that line of coast, which is generally of a very bold and dangerous character. The traffic on this coast is very considerable. Independent of the coasting trade, and that with the Orkney and Shetland Islands, there is a large trade with Archangel and other ports in the North of Europe, and there is also a large trade between the ports on the west coasts of England and Scotland, and Ireland, and the ports in the Baltic and the North of Europe, passing to and fro through the Pentland Firth. Besides all this passing trade, a very large trade has of late years risen up, and is still increasing between the continental ports and the north-east coast of Scotland in the export of fish. It appears in evidence that shipping resorts to the port of Wick alone to the extent of 60,000 tons a year for the export of fish. The want of a good harbour of refuge on this part of the coast has been very strongly urged upon your Committee by all the witnesses who have given evidence upon the subject, but principally by the experienced officers attached to the Admiralty. It has been urged mainly in respect to the trade of the coast, including the fisheries, but also, in some degree, for the use of the ships of Her Majesty's Navy. Three places have been pointed out as the best suited for the construction of such a harbour, viz., Wick, Peterhead, and Fraserburgh. The majority of evidence is, however, in favour of Wick, with reference especially to the fishing trade. Captain Washington and Captain Vetch, of the Admiralty, and Captain Sullivan, of the Board of Trade, whose attention had been specially and officially called to the question, and who had carefully examined it upon the spot, are very decided in favour of Wick. On the other hand, Colonel Moody, of the Royal Engineers, has spoken in favour of Peterhead, but chiefly in relation to its advantages in a strategical point of view; Captain Henderson, of the Royal Navy, has also spoken strongly in favour of the position of Peterhead. Mr. Stevenson, the well-known engineer, also, while he admitted the more extensive trade of Wick, and the necessity for a harbour there, gave the preference to Peterhead; while Mr. Abernethy was of opinion that Fraserburgh presented advantages superior to any other place; but while differences of opinion existed as to its being the best spot for a Harbour of Refuge in respect to some of its objects, all the witnesses concurred in opinion that for the purposes of the great fishing trade Wick is most important. It is stated that upwards of 1,700 boats fish off the coast of Caithness from all parts of Scotland, and even from England and Ireland; of these at least 1,000 boats, manned by 5,000 men, belong to

Wick, while only 400 boats belong to Peterhead, and a still smaller number to Fraserburgh. With regard to the formation of a Harbour of Refuge at Wick, your Committee thinks it necessary to state that the Commissioners for the present harbour, in connection with the Fishery Society, have it in contemplation to enlarge the present harbour, and are prepared to expend a sum of 45,000*l.* thereon; the inadequacy, however, of the proposed plan and improvement for the objects required has been strongly pointed out by the officers of the Admiralty, and especially in the evidence of Captain Vetch, who produced a plan to the Committee by which the objections would be obviated, and sufficient accommodation secured for all the objects of the harbour, whether for the purposes of fishing, of trade, or of a naval station, at a cost, estimated by Mr. Coode, the officer in charge of the works at Portland, not to exceed 186,000*l.* It is understood that the Fishery Society is ready to apply the sum at their command towards this large work, in place of expending it upon the smaller work contemplated. The harbour proposed by Mr. Stevenson at Peterhead would enclose a space of 200 acres at low water, and of 100 acres within the three-fathom line, and is estimated by him to cost 335,000*l.* The plan proposed by Mr. Abernethy for the improvement of Fraserburgh he estimates would cost 80,000*l.*, and would furnish a sheltered area of 11 acres for vessels drawing 20 feet and upwards, and about 30 acres for vessels of a less class.

The North-East Coast of England.—It appears in the evidence taken by your Committee, that between St. Abb's Head and Flamborough Head, a distance of about 150 miles, every harbour along the coast, without any exception, has a bar at its entrance, more or less dangerous; and that none of them can be entered at low water. This coast includes the important ports of the Tyne, the Wear and the Tees, besides those of Berwick-upon-Tweed, Blythe, Hartlepool, Seaham, Whitby, and Scarborough. Having reference to the great and rapidly increasing traffic to and from the ports included in this line of coast, and to the number of casualties upon it, your Committee cannot hesitate to express its opinion that this portion of the coast urgently demands the earliest consideration, with a view to lessen the enormous loss of life and property which annually occurs upon it, a great mass of which, as Mr. Calver has stated, arises simply from the want of a Harbour of Refuge in times of emergency. Captain Sullivan has shown that the entire tonnage of British sailing vessels annually clearing coastways from ports in England was 8,162,000 tons, and coastways and foreign, 15,796,000 tons; and that of these quantities, the tonnage from the five ports of Newcastle, Hartlepool, Sunderland with Seaham, Shields, and Stockton, clearing coastways, was 3,733,000 tons, and coastways and foreign together, 5,160,000 tons; so that the tonnage of these five ports represents fully 45 per cent. of the whole coasting trade of England, and fully 32 per cent. of the entire trade, coasting and foreign together. With regard to wrecks, Captain Washington states, that he has computed that one-half of the whole occur on the east coast of Great Britain, and fully one-half of that number between the Frith of Forth and the Humber; this would represent at least 25 per cent. of all the wrecks on the coasts of the United Kingdom as occurring within that limit. Great and praiseworthy efforts have been and are being made to improve the approaches to some of the existing harbours on that coast, and especially at the mouth of the Tyne; but these are works more applicable to the

special purposes of the ports in connection with them, than to a general harbour of refuge so much required. With a view to such a work, Captain Washington says, "Tees Bay is the focus of wrecks on the east coast of England, and this bay includes Hartlepool, Stockton, and Redcar;" and he has no doubt that some part of Tees Bay is the best spot for such a national work. But while his impression is in favour of Hartlepool, which has been reported upon to the Admiralty by the late Mr. Rendel, yet it would require further consideration whether Hartlepool or Redcar, or which side of the Bay should be adopted. Captain Vetch and Mr. Calver both concur in his recommendation of Tees Bay as the best locality, and of Hartlepool as the most eligible spot. It appears that "at the instance of the Port and Pier Commissioners, the late Mr. Rendel was ordered to examine carefully into the subject of a harbour of refuge at this point, and that he reported strongly in favour of a harbour, by running out piers on the north and south side of the bay; the plan enclosed an area of 470 acres, having a depth of 12 feet and upwards, and of 325 acres, having a depth of 18 feet and upwards at low-water spring tides; of which the estimated total cost was 800,000*l.*, and the period required for completion about six years." Captain Vetch has, however, suggested that a breakwater, open at both ends, and placed in front of the entrance to the harbour, in somewhat the same form as the breakwater in Plymouth Harbour, would in many respects be preferable. The only other point of this coast which has been much urged upon your Committee as suitable for a harbour of refuge, as distinguished from the local requirements of individual ports, is Filey Bay, about half-way between Flamborough Head and Scarborough; and the arguments and facts put forward by Mr. Coode as an engineer, and by mariners who have long navigated that coast, are, in the opinion of this Committee, well worthy of being carefully considered before any final decision is arrived at upon the subject. It is stated by these witnesses that most of the vessels that are lost upon that part of the coast are laden vessels on their way southward; that they seldom leave their ports except with a fair wind, which carries them up as far as Flamborough Head, where, when overtaken by an adverse wind, they congregate in great numbers, sometimes as many as 300 or 400 at a time, causing frequent collisions, and in the last extremity are driven back to seek shelter in one of the ports to the northward, and that it is in the attempt to reach those ports that they founder at sea, or are lost in the attempt to cross the bars which encounter them at the entrance to all the harbours northward to the Forth. It is even stated that vessels frequently put back from Flamborough Head as far as the Frith of Forth; and it is contended that a harbour at Filey would afford the best means of sheltering such vessels, and of avoiding the serious losses now sustained. It is, however, necessary to observe, that there is some difference in the evidence as to the proportion of losses of laden ships, to which this argument applies, and of light ships. Mr. Coode states, that a breakwater, including the rocks of Filey Brigg, of 3,200 yards, would give an area of 200 acres, sheltered from every wind, with water deep enough for a line-of-battle ship; of 348 acres of a depth of three fathoms and upwards; of 403 acres of a depth sufficient for the largest colliers; and of 427 acres of one fathom and upwards, which would be suited for fishing boats; all equally sheltered from every wind. He estimates the cost at 860,000*l.* This plan appears to have received less attention than the one for constructing a harbour of

refuge in Tees Bay, but, for the reasons named, your Committee is of opinion that it merits further investigation; but whatever point may be decided upon competent authority as the best, your Committee desires to express its strong opinion, that a harbour of refuge on this part of the coast, of dimensions suitable to its large and rapidly increasing traffic, is urgently required.

3. *The Coast from Land's End to Hartland Point, and the Bristol Channel.*—In considering this part of the coast, your Committee draws a distinction between the part extending from the Land's End to Hartland Point, and that further up, embracing the whole of the Bristol Channel on both sides. The evidence goes to show that the part of the coast up to Hartland Point is frequented chiefly by small coasting vessels; it is shown that out of 3,221 casualties, 2,648 happened to vessels under 200 tons, 367 to vessels between 200 and 350 tons, 93 to vessels from 350 to 500 tons, and 113 to vessels above 500 tons. On the other hand, the Bristol Channel is frequented by foreign-going ships, rapidly increasing in number, and of large tonnage. With respect to the first of these two divisions, the two points most strongly recommended to your Committee for the construction of a harbour of refuge within this district are St. Ives and Padstow. The points in the Bristol Channel to which the attention of the Committee has been chiefly drawn, as offering the best security for the shipping frequenting it, are the Mumbles Head, Lundy Island, and Clovelly. Mr. Abernethy, who thinks that the Mumbles is the most important point for a harbour of refuge for the Welsh coast and the Bristol Channel, produced a plan, by which he proposed to construct two breakwaters, together of the length of 1,760 yards, at a cost of 370,000*l.*, and which would afford a harbour of an area of 200 acres, with a depth of four fathoms at low-water spring tides, sheltered from all winds; on the other hand, it has been strongly contended by other witnesses that Lundy Island is the best point. Much difference of opinion has been expressed before your Committee as to the respective merits of these places, and they will require a much more minute investigation than could possibly be given by your Committee before any point is actually decided upon. Your Committee would only further state upon this part of the subject that, judging by the state of things which has arisen in the crowded coal ports of the North of England, any place which is finally determined upon for affording refuge to ships frequenting the Bristol Channel, should have special reference to the rapid development of the coal and iron fields in South Wales, and to the increasing sea traffic which is arising therefrom.

4. *The Coasts of Ireland and the Isle of Man.*—The chief points on the coast of Ireland to which the attention of your Committee has been directed with a view to afford shelter for vessels in distress, are Carlingford Bay, the Skerries, near Portrush, Waterford and Wexford, though the latter partakes more exclusively of the character of a private trade harbour. In these places there are already natural harbours, only requiring some improvements in order to render them more available as harbours of refuge for passing ships. With respect to Carlingford Bay, Captain Washington is of opinion that an outlay of 20,000*l.*, to be expended in the removal of a bar, would make it "an admirable harbour of refuge, which would supply all the serious want that is now experienced on the coast between Belfast Lough and Dublin Bay;" and engineers, as well as practical mariners sailing from Liverpool, have given evidence of the most important character as to the great advantages which the foreign trade from Liverpool to

America and other places would derive from a harbour at that point. With regard to Waterford, it is similarly circumstanced. It is described by Captain Washington as "a very fine natural harbour, but with a flat or bar having only 12 feet over it at low-water spring tides. To dredge a channel through that to a depth of 18 or 20 feet, at a cost of 20,000*l.*, would make it a good harbour." And Captain Washington adds, "that there are no two spots in the whole of the United Kingdom at which good harbours of refuge could be got at so small an outlay as at Waterford and Carlingford; 20,000*l.* laid out on each of those would render them available at all times for the greater part of the vessels that navigate the Irish seas." These would especially include the whole of the foreign trade to and from Liverpool, as well as all the other ports on the west coast of England. Your Committee has no hesitation in expressing its opinion in favour of these particular works. With regard to Wexford, your Committee is not prepared to speak with so much confidence. There is no doubt that the expenditure of a sum of about 40,000*l.*—and it is understood that there is a sum equal to half of that amount under charge of the Admiralty for this harbour—would greatly improve it; but it appears that, even then, "it would be available only at tide-time, and then only for vessels of a light draught of water." And, besides this, it appears that the sands with which the harbour is beset at the mouth are constantly shifting, so as to change the character of the channel. With regard to the Skerries, Portrush, on the north coast, the circumstances are very peculiar. There is at present a large bay, to the eastward of which a high headland stretches northward, so as to form a protection from the east and south-east. From the western side of the bay a chain of rocks, called the Skerries, stretches from the land in the form of a segment of a circle towards the north-east, but with considerable openings at intervals. The prevailing wind on that coast, which is most dangerous to the navigation, is from the north-west, against which the Skerries form at present a partial protection, and if the interstices in the chain already referred to were filled up, the protection would be perfect, and a harbour of the finest and most secure character would be formed, easily entered at all times, and without risk of detention as soon as the weather moderated. The facilities for making a first-class harbour of refuge at this point are ably and clearly pointed out by Sir John Burgoyne, Sir James Dombrain, and other witnesses; and Mr. Dargan, the eminent contractor, stated to your Committee that the whole might be accomplished for a sum of 100,000*l.* Two witnesses, who have been in the habit of sailing from the Clyde and Liverpool to America, gave evidence as to the great importance which a harbour of such a kind would be on the north coast of Ireland, when from the state of the winds it was desirable to go or come north about; and it appeared that the existence of such a harbour would induce ships to adopt that route much more frequently than they now do, thus relieving to that extent the overcrowded channel round the South of Ireland. Your Committee is of opinion that this is a work well worthy of favourable consideration. With regard to the Isle of Man, Captain Washington speaks of it as "the beacon of the Irish sea," and is of opinion that a small harbour of refuge is required to be constructed outside the present tidal harbour of Douglas. Captain Vetch has stated to the Committee that he has already, at the request of the Admiralty, designed a pier in that situation, and for the purpose named, which would be available for shelter for vessels passing through those seas, as well

as a protection to the large herring fleet frequenting that island; at the same time, your Committee thinks it right to state that its attention has been called to Port Erin as a suitable place for a harbour of refuge.

The various works which your Committee has thus enumerated as being needful purely or mainly for harbours of refuge, and which appear to it to be of a character which can only be executed as national public works, and as such, under the direction and control of the Government, are:—1. A harbour of refuge on the North-east coast of Scotland, estimated to cost from 80,000*l.* to 335,000*l.*, according to the site that may be selected. 2. A harbour of refuge on the north-east coast of England, at an estimated cost of from 800,000*l.* to 860,000*l.* 3. An extension of the present harbour at St. Ives, at a cost of 174,000*l.*, or if Padstow is adopted, at a cost not exceeding 35,000*l.* 4. A harbour of refuge at the Mumbles, or at some place in the Bristol Channel, at a cost of 300,000*l.* 5. An improvement of the harbour at Carlingford, at a cost of 20,000*l.* 6. An improvement of the harbour at Waterford, at a cost of 20,000*l.* 7. The construction of a harbour of refuge at the Skerries, Portrush, at a cost of 100,000*l.* 8. A pier in the Isle of Man, at a cost of 40,000*l.*; making a total not exceeding the sum of 2,000,000*l.*; or, if spread over a period of 10 years, at the rate of 200,000*l.* a year.

Your Committee is desirous to remind the House, that it has not, in the most important instances where harbours of refuge are now recommended, ventured to determine the particular spots upon which they should be constructed. The various grounds upon which the merits of these different places rest are of a nature necessarily so technical in their character, involving questions of engineering and of nautical skill, as well as matters of fact as to the facilities which the different spots offer for construction, by the supply of material and other considerations, that it has appeared to your Committee that they could only be satisfactorily determined by a Royal Commission, composed in part of professional persons, and having the best professional assistance, and in some cases after a full investigation upon the spot. Your Committee has therefore come to the conclusion to indicate only in general terms the localities where these important works are required, and it has no difficulty in strongly recommending that a Royal Commission should immediately be appointed, with a view of deciding the particular spots within the limits indicated at which it will be most beneficial for the public at large that such harbours of refuge shall be constructed. Your Committee is of opinion that, considering that the harbours now recommended are chiefly with a view to the security and development of the mercantile marine of the country, the mercantile and shipping interest should be represented upon such Commission.

Your Committee will now proceed to consider the evidence it has taken upon the important financial questions which have arisen in the course of its inquiry, as essentially connected with the subject. The estimated cost of the proposed improvements has already been stated as not exceeding 2,000,000*l.*; or, if spread over 10 years, at the rate of 200,000*l.* a year. This is no doubt a large sum, but your Committee would respectfully submit that it is comparatively a small one for works having for their object the diminution of danger in the navigation of our coasts, which at present involves an annual loss of lives to a number exceeding 800, and of property to the amount of 1,500,000*l.* Not that the Committee would wish it to be inferred that it is of opinion that the whole of those losses would be

obviated by the proposed works ; but it is of opinion that if a considerable portion were prevented, of which there can be no question, the case is strong enough to induce a great effort to be made by Parliament and the Government to accomplish them. Your Committee would remark, that although this large annual money loss, to which reference has been made, is extensively distributed among underwriters, mutual insurance offices, and private shipowners, and is thus not so obvious in its full magnitude at first sight, yet that it nevertheless constitutes a real abstraction to that amount from the national wealth ; and that any expenditure, the effect of which shall be to prevent or mitigate these losses, may fairly be regarded, in a national point of view, as an investment, the value of which is to be judged by the amount of the national saving effected thereby. Regarded from this point of view, and supposing that the important works now suggested were to prevent a loss of property only to the extent of 30 per cent., the whole outlay required would be defrayed by less than four years' saving effected by it. With regard to the saving of life—a question which, in public importance, and as involving the necessity of action on the part of Parliament, must be looked upon as one of much greater moment—your Committee would remark, that the proposed works would in all probability be the means of saving a larger proportion than in the case of property. The loss of life is generally the result of total wrecks, and it is that class of casualties that would be most avoided by harbours of refuge.

But in reverting again to the purely financial part of the subject, your Committee would now consider the evidence which has been given to it, in relation to the justice and the policy of rendering these harbours in part self-supporting by means of a charge upon shipping. It is no doubt the case, in respect to trading harbours, that they are as a rule entirely supported by dues levied upon the ships which use them, and that this principle is recognized as being at once a just and beneficial one ; just, because those for whom conveniences are made by corporate bodies and others, are bound to pay to the communities at whose cost they are made a fair remuneration for the service thus conferred upon them ; beneficial, because it is only by an equitable arrangement of this kind that communities, whether large or small, can be expected to make these improvements, so useful to the shipping trade. Now it appears to your Committee that the principle which distinguishes private trading harbours from harbours of refuge, and which points them out to be the objects of local and private enterprise, is, that they are constructed principally in reference to the wants and convenience of such localities ; whereas harbours of refuge upon our open coasts are constructed, not for the use of any individual port or community, but for the use of all the shipping, both British and foreign, frequenting or passing our coasts ; and it seems, therefore, to your Committee, that the entire community of the country and the Government stand in the same relation to harbours of refuge as individual communities and corporations stand in relation to private trade harbours. It has been maintained that harbours of refuge bear much the same relation to shipping as lighthouses ; that both are intended for general security and protection, and that both are more useful at times of emergency than at others, and that there is no reason by which the one is made self-supporting by a charge upon shipping, that does not equally apply to the other. It may be contended, that inasmuch as coasting vessels on the sea are now run in competition with railways, there would be a manifest injustice to the

owners of the latter if their competitors were not only placed at an advantage as compared with them, by having their security provided for so as to lessen their risk at no cost to themselves, but that they (the owners of railways) should actually bear the burden as a part of the taxpayers of the community; and this point will appear more clear when it is considered that every diminution of risk at sea operates as a direct money advantage to shipowners, by reducing the amount paid for insurance. In the case of vessels mutually insured by the body of shipowners, as is commonly the practice in the ports in the north of England, every reduction of loss must operate as an immediate money gain; and with regard to those which are insured by underwriters, it is well known that the rates are determined by a close calculation of the risk as shown by an average of the losses; and it is therefore in proportion as the average number of losses diminishes, that the charge becomes reduced. In this view it is obvious that the dues paid by shipping for lights, and for harbours of refuge, can only be regarded in the shape of an insurance against risk, and as reducing to some greater extent than such dues amount to, the charge which would otherwise be made to cover the increased risk if there were no lights and no harbours. Captain Sullivan has shown that if the premium of insurance upon colliers between Newcastle and London were, in consequence of the establishment of a great harbour of refuge, reduced only by one-twentieth, it would afford a sum sufficient for all purposes to be collected for dues for such harbour, upon the principle that all vessels for which it was available contributed. Another reason which appears important to your Committee in favour of the view of these works being constructed upon the principle of being in part self-supporting is, that upon that principle there is much greater probability of their being undertaken and carried forward with spirit and speed than if it were attempted to consider them as a charge to be finally defrayed by the public from the Consolidated Fund; and your Committee is of opinion that such is the importance of these harbours to the shipping interest, that it would be infinitely preferable to submit to the small charge which will be necessary for the purpose, than to hazard their postponement for an indefinite period of time; but considering the great services that will accrue to national wealth, as already shown, your Committee are of opinion that a considerable proportion of the money necessary to construct the works should be contributed from the public exchequer.

But admitting that every principle which regulates respective private interests in respect to the expenditure of public money, points to the justice of a charge being made upon shipping for the use of the harbours, a question of importance has been raised before your Committee, which it is of the utmost consequence should be clearly determined. On one hand it is contended that a small and uniform charge should be made upon all ships navigating the part of the coast upon which these harbours are proposed to be constructed, upon the principle that the expenditure is incurred equally for the safety and security of all, in the case of need, and that all alike will profit by the reduced risk and the consequently smaller premium which will be paid for insurance. This would be treating harbours of refuge exactly as lighthouses are now treated in respect to the mode of their maintenance, by dues upon shipping. On the other hand, it has been contended—admitting that the principle of payment is a right one—that the charge should be confined exclusively to those ships which actually use the harbours, and that it should be sufficient to raise the necessary sum of

money. This would be treating harbours of refuge in the same way as private trade harbours are now treated, those vessels only paying which enter them. It is contended, however, that there is in this respect the widest distinction in principle between the two classes of harbours; those of the one class are constructed chiefly for the private trade of the ports to which they are attached, those of the other for the general security and benefit of the entire trade passing the coast upon which they are constructed. There is, moreover, an important practical reason which has been brought before your Committee against the latter view of the case. It has been contended, and proofs have been adduced to maintain the reasoning, that such is the aversion of the masters of sailing ships to incur expenses on behalf of their owners upon their own responsibility, that they would too often rather incur great risks, which might prove fatal, than take shelter in such harbours, especially as on this principle the charge would require to be considerable; and that thus the very object of the harbours would be frustrated to some extent. As the saving of life as well as property is the main object for the construction of such harbours, your Committee would wish a policy to be adopted in relation to them which will induce to their freest and most extensive use. Your Committee is further of opinion, that it is a manifest fallacy to conclude that only the vessels which happen from stress of weather to be driven into them, are those which derive benefit from them; but that all vessels, the security of which has been promoted by their existence, share equally, as has been shown by the diminished risk. On every account, then, your Committee is of opinion that the first-named principle, that of making a uniform charge upon all ships passing such harbours in their course, is just in the abstract: first, because it is just that all should pay for a benefit in which all participate; second, because if a general charge is made, a very small one, which will be scarcely perceptible, will suffice, while if only ships which happen to require to take shelter are to pay, the charge must be large; and third, because in the one case every inducement would exist for freely using such harbours in case of need; while in the other case, a great inclination would exist to hazard the danger of the sea rather than incur the expense of seeking shelter. Your Committee is fully aware of the long and deeply-rooted feeling so justly felt by those connected with shipping upon the subject of passing tolls. But this objection your Committee believes, from the evidence before it, has arisen almost entirely from the great abuses of that system in past times, when ships were required to pay passing tolls in respect to lights and harbours which did not lie in their course, and which could not be of any service to them, either as affording safety, or as reducing the estimated risk of their voyage. But it has been represented to your Committee, that since the light dues have been levied upon the obviously just principle of requiring vessels only to pay for such lights as lie in their course, the objection alluded to has entirely disappeared. And your Committee would upon this subject desire to express its opinion in the strongest terms, that if this principle is adopted in respect to dues for harbours of refuge, the greatest care should be taken to impose such dues only upon ships which in their natural course would pass such harbours, and which would therefore benefit by them.

The subject of "passing tolls" received much consideration from the Commissioners appointed to inquire into local charges upon shipping; and in their report they laid down principles in respect to them which, to your

Committee, appears sound and just. They say: "It appears to us that the construction and maintenance of a harbour of refuge is a matter of interest, not only to those who seek and obtain refuge within the harbour, but also, although indirectly, to the whole maritime trade of the adjacent seas. Every harbour, however, which is worthy of the name of a harbour, must be regarded as affording, at certain times of the tide at least, an opportunity of refuge to vessels in its immediate vicinity, and many harbours do annually afford refuge to a considerable number of vessels, either wind-bound or in distress. But the connection between harbours generally and the trade which passes by them is of so indirect and secondary a character that this connection would afford no justification whatever for the general imposition of passing tolls. *It is only when a harbour is a harbour of refuge in the strict sense of the term, that any justification, in our judgment, can be found for the imposition of a charge of this nature.*" . . . "It therefore appears to us, 1stly. That a passing toll levied for the construction, maintenance, or improvement of a harbour is not necessarily unjust in principle. 2ndly. That a toll of this character is unjust in principle, unless it be levied for the construction, maintenance, or improvement of a harbour of refuge in the strict sense of the term. 3rdly. That such a toll is unjust, even when levied for the maintenance or improvement of a harbour of refuge, unless the amount of revenue derivable from those who use the harbour is insufficient to defray the expense thereof." These were observations made in reference to tidal trade harbours, and with reference to which the claims of the four harbours of Dover, Ramsgate, Whitby, and Bridlington to the special privilege of levying a passing toll were examined; and as in none of those cases the conditions above stated applied, those tolls were, as your Committee thinks, most justly, recommended to be abolished, inasmuch as the ships upon which they are charged are not, and cannot be, in a majority of cases, benefited by them. Your Committee entirely agrees in the general principles thus laid down by the Commissioners as quoted, and would apply them in their strictest sense in reference to the harbours of refuge which they have recommended. In the words of the Commissioners, these works would be "harbours of refuge in the strict sense of the term," constructed and maintained expressly for such purpose, available, not only at "certain times," but at all times of the tide, and affording to all vessels navigating the waters in their vicinity always a safe refuge in the case of need; a charge, such as has been suggested for such harbours, would be entirely in the spirit of the observations made by the Commissioners, and could not be exposed to any of the objections so justly raised against the passing tolls inflicted upon shipping for the four harbours of Ramsgate, Dover, Bridlington, and Whitby.

In considering, however, the amount of the charge which may fairly be imposed upon shipping for the construction and maintenance of these harbours, your Committee is of opinion that there are plain grounds upon which shipowners should not be called upon to defray the whole. In some respects the utility of such harbours would be of a character for which the public revenues of the country might fairly be called upon to contribute; for example, all the works recommended would be less or more useful for vessels of the Royal Navy taking shelter; and as coaling stations for ships of war, there being at present no harbour between Flamborough Head and the Fern Islands where such a vessel can coal; they would also be useful as national defences, the fixed breakwaters affording great facilities for the

erection of powerful batteries. Again, the effort to save life may fairly be classed as a national object. For these reasons your Committee is of opinion that any such charge upon shipping should be placed at an extremely moderate amount, even though the revenue derived from it did not reach the sum required for the purposes indicated. With regard to what the charge should be, Captain Sullivan has suggested a rate of *one penny per ton* upon all vessels which may be considered to be benefited by the harbours to be made.

The conclusion at which your Committee has arrived, therefore, is, that such a charge, if imposed, should not exceed in any case 1*d.* per ton upon all ships entering into, or clearing from, ports in the United Kingdom, which ships, in the ordinary course of their voyages, would pass the harbours to be constructed; and that whatever rate is fixed upon at first, it shall be reduced from time to time, so as not to exceed a total sum, which shall be equivalent to three-fourths of the interest, which should be computed at the rate of 3 per cent., and of the cost of maintenance. Your Committee feels more confidence in recommending this principle of a small charge for adoption, because it is one so manifestly fair to the rest of the community, that no such objection can be taken to it as would be likely to interfere with the speedy construction of these important works; whereas it would have much less confidence in that object being attained, if the charge were proposed to be entirely defrayed from the Consolidated Fund; against which objections might, with every appearance of justice, be raised by those not interested in shipping or seaport communities. Your Committee is aware that it would require great care to carry out the principle in all its details, but it is of opinion that this duty may fairly be left to Her Majesty's Government.

With regard to the best mode of construction for harbours in deep waters, your Committee has taken some evidence. There are three modes at present in use: the first may be termed Mr. Rendel's plan, which has been so successfully adopted at Holyhead and at Portland; the second, which is a modification of the first, is one recommended by Mr. Abernethy, and upon which he has constructed a harbour at Blyth; and the third is the plan of building walls of masonry by means of the diving-bell, as in use at Dover. The first and third of these plans will be found to be described in great detail in the evidence given by Mr. Coode, the engineer in charge of the works at Portland; the second plan will be found to be described in the evidence of Mr. Abernethy. A fourth plan of constructing breakwaters was submitted to your Committee by Mr. Hayes, which will be found to be described in his evidence. No breakwater has been constructed upon this plan in this country, but it is stated that it is being adopted at Melbourne, in Australia. With regard to the constructions proposed in this Report, your Committee is disposed to view favourably the plan invented by Mr. Rendel, as used at Holyhead, or as modified by Mr. Abernethy, first, because it is much the cheapest; second, because works can be accomplished in that way much more speedily than in any other; and thirdly, because in all the cases referred to, there is abundance of material upon the spot to make that plan practicable.

Upon the subject of employing convict labour in the construction of harbours of refuge, your Committee would refer to the evidence given by Mr. Coode.

During the course of the inquiry which your Committee has conducted,

much evidence has been received upon the improvements of which the existing tidal harbours are susceptible, as bearing upon the general question of refuge in the case of need for passing vessels. Captain Vetch has expressed strongly his opinion of the great advantages which would be derived from such improvements to the general shipping of the country. But your Committee, however sensible it may be of the advantages which might be obtained from such improvements, is of opinion that this subject should not be mixed up with that of harbours of refuge, properly speaking, but should be kept entirely distinct, and should be left to the local managements of each individual port. Many of these ports are in possession of considerable incomes from the dues which they charge upon the shipping resorting to them, and have shown a desire to use every means in their power to render the accommodation of their harbours more complete, and the approach to them more secure. At Newcastle-upon-Tyne large works have been undertaken, and are in progress. At Sunderland considerable funds are at the disposal of the River Wear Commissioners, and, if applied to the extension of the piers would be productive of great benefit. It has also been shown that comparatively small sums of money laid out upon the port of Lowestoft, and other parts of that coast, would add greatly to the convenience of their trade as well to the security of the passing ships. Improvements have been suggested on the south coast, especially near Newhaven; on the coast of Wales, also, and especially at Cardigan, Fishguard, and Newport, it has been represented that essential improvements might be made. But, important as all these may be, especially in reference to the local trades of each, your Committee is not prepared to recommend the outlay of public money upon them, so as to interfere with the great and important national works which have already been adverted to. There is, however, one suggestion which your Committee feels it its duty to make upon this subject, with the view of facilitating these local improvements. Many of these ports are, as has been remarked, in possession of considerable incomes from their own private sources, and are disposed to apply them to these purposes; but these resources would be more available for the required works if they were able to borrow larger sums, upon the principle of mortgaging their present surplus income or future dues, to repay the same within a given number of years, upon the same plan as the drainage loans, or the loans made by the Public Works Loan Commissioners, for various purposes. In many cases applications have been made to those Commissioners, but it is believed that the funds placed annually at their disposal by Parliament are too limited in amount, and have too many claims of other kinds upon them, to enable them to entertain some of these applications. Your Committee is therefore of opinion, that it would be in every way consistent with sound policy to encourage local efforts for the improvement of such harbours, by voting a moderate sum annually, to be specially appropriated to such harbours, upon the same principle and under the same regulations as were applied to the large amount advanced for the purposes of drainage. And looking to the great importance of the object to be attained, your Committee would recommend that such loans should be made at a rate of interest not exceeding 3 per cent., and should be made repayable by means of a sinking fund extended over a period of 50 years.

In conclusion, your Committee cannot too earnestly press upon the House the strong conviction which it has received from the investigation it

has conducted, as to the necessity, on national grounds, of these works being undertaken at as early a period as possible, and placed under some system which will secure their steady and speedy progress. Allusion has already been made to the extraordinary increase which has taken place in the amount of shipping entered inward and outward in the foreign trade during the last 15 years; the increase having been from 9,824,562 tons in 1843, to 23,178,792 tons in 1857; but it must be remarked, that in addition to this great increase in the foreign trade, the coasting trade has also increased during the same period from an aggregate of 22,133,000 tons entered inward and outward in 1843, to an aggregate of 27,065,000 tons in 1857. This increase has taken place steadily from year to year, notwithstanding the occasional checks which have been received during that period to the commercial prosperity of the country; and there is no reason that your Committee can discover why it should not proceed at the same rate. But it must be obvious, that it will be just in proportion as the waters upon our coasts and the approaches to our harbours become crowded, that the risk will be increased, especially when ships become unmanageable in severe storms. If then we are to look forward for ten years, the period which it is assumed will be required to complete the works recommended, it is probable that the continued increase of our trade over that space of time will be such as will show that improvements of the character pointed out in this Report have become absolutely indispensable to the further development of our shipping which will have taken place. Your Committee feels that it may be laid down as an indisputable axiom, sustained by experience, especially of late years, that while the extent of our coasts and the natural facilities they afford for navigation are limited, the trade of the country, and consequently its shipping, are capable of and destined to an indefinite expansion; and that the only way, therefore, by which the former can be rendered commensurate for the requirements of the latter, is by supplementing the natural facilities which we possess, by the construction of great national works upon our coasts, such as your Committee has ventured to recommend. The sum required for them, though considerable of itself, is, your Committee would submit, trifling when compared with the great objects which are to be attained by it: and if the recommendations of your Committee are adopted, even that amount may be prevented, at least in part, from being any permanent charge upon the finances of the State; but even were it otherwise, your Committee will venture to express an opinion, that considering what constitutes the chief source of the commercial greatness and the political security of this country, and considering the enormous loss both of life and property to which the nation is at present exposed from the dangerous and unprotected state of our coasts, and the consequent defective character of our navigation, there is no object for which public money could be more usefully or more profitably employed, having regard to the present and future welfare of the nation.

17th June, 1858.

VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE FOREIGN TRADE. 213

No. CII.—VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE FOREIGN TRADE.

AN ACCOUNT of the NUMBER and TONNAGE of VESSELS, distinguishing the COUNTRIES to which they BELONGED, ENTERED INWARDS and CLEARED OUTWARDS with CARGOES (including their repeated Voyages), in the Year ended 31st December, 1858.

Countries to which the Vessels belonged.	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
United Kingdom and its Dependencies	19,256	5,233,311	23,455	5,873,986
Russia	233	70,440	242	72,268
Sweden	720	120,052	798	139,080
Norway	2,187	482,954	1,379	262,762
Denmark	2,400	238,479	2,999	302,228
Prussia	1,286	318,697	1,377	325,460
Other German States	1,887	396,183	3,455	546,497
Holland	1,228	171,173	1,811	275,475
Belgium	170	89,724	259	61,940
France	2,716	233,541	4,294	455,953
Spain	251	59,412	265	67,650
Portugal	127	19,159	134	21,304
Italian States	706	204,403	901	260,037
Other European States	131	35,174	139	36,725
United States of America	1,276	1,186,951	1,308	1,229,171
Other States in America, Africa, or Asia	17	6,480	18	6,169
Total	84,591	8,816,133	42,834	9,936,705

AN ACCOUNT of the NUMBER and TONNAGE of VESSELS ENTERED INWARDS and CLEARED OUTWARDS, with CARGOES (including their repeated Voyages) from and to various COUNTRIES, during the Year ended 31st December, 1858.

Countries whence arrived, and to which departed.	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
British Possession:—				
North America	1,884	911,683	867	394,191
East Indies	788	608,993	806	597,186
Australia	126	94,884	518	404,956
All other Parts	2,814	533,871	3,170	722,138
Foreign Countries:—				
Russia	5,363	805,040	1,900	421,812
Sweden	1,482	277,030	973	151,794
Norway	1,329	231,780	817	121,133
Denmark	1,790	196,598	2,968	322,520
Prussia	2,424	442,285	2,531	459,305
Other German States	1,516	402,387	4,583	814,795
Holland	1,971	407,609	3,192	586,595
Belgium	1,125	195,066	1,367	238,742
France	6,350	742,240	10,014	1,334,761
Spain	904	143,261	1,787	357,234
Portugal	718	102,415	663	119,653
Italian States	886	193,282	1,752	429,238
Turkish Dominions	390	116,928	605	175,753
Wallachia and Moldavia	547	100,585	73	9,730
Other European States	168	36,250	170	40,661
Egypt	468	190,983	343	140,425
United States	1,307	1,206,051	1,350	1,288,314
Mexico, Foreign West Indies, and Central America	659	241,036	751	278,696
Brazil	347	101,199	533	167,301
Other States in America, Africa, and Asia	1,235	534,677	1,101	359,772
Total	34,591	8,816,133	42,834	9,936,705

AN ACCOUNT of the NUMBER and TONNAGE of VESSELS, distinguishing BRITISH and FOREIGN (EMPLOYED in the Intercourse between GREAT BRITAIN and IRELAND and otherwise), ENTERED INWARDS and CLEARED OUTWARDS, with CARGOES, at PORTS in the UNITED KINGDOM, during the Year ended 31st December, 1858.

Vessels.	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
Employed in the Intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland :—				
British	31,715	5,026,051	31,465	4,969,639
Foreign	69	11,951	83	14,241
Other Coasting Vessels :—				
British	114,363	10,631,886	120,205	10,838,860
Foreign	254	40,968	242	38,251
Total { British Foreign	146,078	15,657,937	151,670	15,808,499
	323	52,919	325	52,492
Total	146,401	15,710,856	151,995	15,860,991

No. CIII.—FISHERIES (IRELAND).

Report of the Commissioners of Fisheries (Ireland) for 1857.

THE herring fishery of 1857 was very unproductive on all parts of the coast. The quantity of fish conveyed by train from the outports to Dublin fell off considerably. Licences have been granted to form oyster beds, and where they have been formed they have proved successful. The salmon fishery also had proved less successful than in former years.

No. CIV.—METEOROLOGICAL DEPARTMENT.

Report of the Meteorological Department of the Board of Trade.

In the early part of this century, while Mr. Marsden was Secretary of the Admiralty, the want of collected and combined information respecting the ocean was so often felt by that able public servant, that he suggested a plan for arranging, or grouping, all that could be obtained in certain convenient divisions of the seas. He then proposed the method of squares as suitable and convenient in practice. In 1831 a systematic commencement of a collection and discussion of meteorological observations made at sea was undertaken at the Hydrographical Office of the Admiralty, upon a similar principle; but pressure of other duties, and the limited extent of means then applicable, impeded a continuance of the collection, which was scarcely more than commenced. The twelve large volumes (one for each month) prepared for the Indian Ocean, as being less known than the Atlantic, are now in this office, with their corresponding charts subdivided into numbered squares. This useful arrangement, dividing the ocean into squares, which affords the means of grouping and averaging observations, as well as identifying spaces of sea like provinces of land, was thus originated at the Admiralty.

In the year 1838 a system of meteorological observations on an extensive scale was strenuously advocated by the author of the *Law of Storms* (Sir William Reid), and chiefly in consequence of his arguments, officers of the Royal Engineers at detached stations, and Consuls in foreign ports were requested to collect and transmit such observations. But probably the more immediate object in view at that time was the investigation of storms affecting the safety of ships rather than the duration of their passages; and it was not till Lieutenant Maury, of the United States, fully appreciating what had been previously done in the wide field of research which he was then contemplating, commenced those extensive undertakings, already so useful, which have earned deserved praise for their accumulation of facts, for their useful advice, and valuable results.

The maritime commerce of nations having been extended over the world to an unprecedented degree, and competition having reached such a point that the value of cargoes and the profits of enterprise depend more than ever on the duration and nature of voyages, it is obviously a question of the greatest importance to determine the very best tracks for ships to follow in order to make the quickest as well as the safest passages. The employment of steamers in such numbers, the prevalent endeavour to keep as near the direct line between two places (the arc of a great circle) as intervening obstacles, currents, and winds allow, and the general improvement in navigation,—cause a demand for more precise and readily available information respecting all frequented parts of the oceans.

Not only greater accuracy of detail, but more concentration and arrangement of the existing though scattered information (so difficult to obtain speedily), are now required. Besides which instrumental errors have vitiated many results, and have prevented a considerable portion of the meteorological observations made at sea from being considered better than rough approximations.

“It is one of the chief points of a seaman’s duty to know where to find a fair wind, and where to fall in with a favourable current;” but with means hitherto accessible the knowledge of such matters has only been acquired by individuals after years of trial and actual experience at sea; of which the results have not been conveyed adequately to their successors.

By the wind and current charts published of late years, chiefly based on the great work of the United States Government, superintended by Lieutenant Maury, and by studying his sailing directions, navigators have been enabled to shorten their passages materially, in many cases as much as one-fourth, in some one-third, of the distance or time previously employed. Although much had been collected and written about winds and currents by well-known authorities, attention had not been sufficiently devoted to the subject, however important to maritime countries, and especially to Great Britain.

In 1853, encouraged by the practical results already obtained, the principal maritime Powers authorized qualified persons to assist at a conference, held at Brussels, on the subject of meteorology at sea. The report of that conference was laid before Parliament, and the result was a vote of money for the purchase of instruments and the discussions of observations, under the superintendence of the Board of Trade. Parliament having voted the necessary expenditure, arrangements were made, in accordance with the views of the Royal Society and the British Association for the Advancement of Science, for a supply of instruments so constructed and tested as to

be strictly reliable and intercomparable. A communication was made by Government, in consequence of which the Royal Society obtained the opinions and suggestions of many eminent meteorologists in Europe and America, and then addressed an elaborate letter to the Board of Trade, expressing their views of the principal objects sought for, and more especially desirable, in the investigations of meteorological science, with the hope of ascertaining important laws.

A naval officer was appointed to execute the duties of this new department (assisted by other persons), and at the beginning of 1855 an office was established at the Board of Trade.

Agents were appointed at principal ports, through whom instruments, charts, and book might be furnished to a limited number of very carefully selected ships; and the supply commenced. Since that time more than 200 merchant ships and numerous men-of-war, in which officers have undertaken to make, record, and transmit observations, have been so supplied. Many more ships might have been similarly provided with instruments, had the willingness of their captains alone affected the supply; but as only a certain number of good instruments can be purchased by Government annually, with due regard to the Parliamentary vote of money, and as each of the agents requires a set of instruments to be kept by him for the purpose of comparison with those sent or returned, besides those wanted for comparisons with the barometers at numerous lighthouses, the number must be limited discreetly.

Attention to preliminary arrangements, and the preparation of numerous books, forms, and registers, did not prevent an advance towards some practical results, even in the first year. An extensive digest of Maury's Pilot Charts was undertaken, by which their substance is rendered available to the seaman in a graphical instead of a numerical form. These conversions of Maury's wind-roses into diagrams showing his accumulated data in another manner, have been carried on as far as his charts supplied the materials; and from those sources alone have twelve wind charts been compiled and circulated by the Board of Trade, which afford valuable information to the navigator in each of the oceans (except the South Pacific, from which we are now collecting materials for another chart). The Dutch are following our example, and with improvement, some may think, by simplifying the diagrams. These charts are prepared for the four calendar quarters, rather than for the four commonly received seasons of the year, because, in fact, the extreme variations of the atmosphere and of the ocean occur some time after the equinoxes and solstices, so that February, May, August, and November approximate to the actual extremes nearer than those months which respectively precede them, and are usually considered the middle of each season. This arrangement has been adopted for another reason also, which is, that all parts of the world—all varieties of climate and season—are to be considered, besides those most familiar to Europeans.

It is proposed, when sufficient materials are ready, to comprise the contents of such charts as have been described within the pages of books (preserving the graphical illustration), numbered according to the squares of the world for every month of the year (each square being subdivided where requisite). The effect of such compilations will be, that a person interested in a voyage or distant locality may at once ascertain the average and relative meteorological facts already known about the part of the world in question, including such information about the sea and its currents, as well as the

atmosphere over it, as should influence the selection of courses to be steered, or the localities to be visited, therefore immediately affecting the great desideratum of voyagers—a safe and pleasant as well as a speedy passage. It is obvious that by making a passage in less time, there is not only a saving of expense to the merchant, the shipowner, and the insurer, but a great diminution of the risk from fatal maladies, as, instead of losing time, if not lives, in unhealthy localities, heavy rains, or calms with oppressive heat, a ship properly navigated may be speeding on her way under favourable circumstances. Such information, duly classified and rendered easy of access, may become invaluable. At present it exists to a much greater extent than is usually supposed; but being so diffused among a variety of books and documents, it is little better than an unworked mine—unproductive, however rich.

In this new office valuable meteorological facts, already collected at the Admiralty, or obtained elsewhere, may be tabulated and discussed, in addition to the continually accruing and more exact data to be furnished in future. A large number of ships are engaged in observations, aided by documents liberally furnished by the United States Government, or by the Board of Trade. Not only has that Government offered directions and charts *gratis* to American ships, but also to those of other nations, in accordance with easy and just conditions. And in this country the Government, through the Board of Trade, has supplied a certain number of ships going on distant voyages with charts, meteorological registers, and excellent instruments. Changes in the atmosphere over the ocean, as well as on the land, being intimately connected with electrical or magnetic action, besides wind and weather, all seamen are interested by such matters, while the facts which they register become valuable to philosophers. Meteorological information collected at the Board of Trade is therefore discussed with the twofold object of view—of aiding navigators, or making navigation easier, as well as more certain—and amassing a collection of accurate and digested observations for the future use of men of science. There is no insuperable reason why every part of the sea should not be known as well as the land; if not, indeed, better, generally speaking, because more accessible and less varied in character. And it is expected that in process of years every frequented square of ocean will have been investigated sufficiently to enable digests to be given, which will afford such guides to the inexperienced as much time and practice only could give them otherwise.

Great improvement has taken place of late years in passages across the ocean, no doubt partly due to the improved construction of ships and eager competition of their owners and captains; but a large share of it must be attributed to publications by which the experience and acquirements of a few persons have been rendered available to many. By collecting and digesting observations already made, but not yet turned to account, and by means of more correct and extensive investigations in future, the “highway of nations” may yearly become more safe, and the intercourse between distant parts of the world remarkably facilitated. To the well-informed and experienced seaman there may be comparatively little to offer; but property and life, to a great extent, must at times be entrusted to inexperienced men. Every commander of a ship must have a beginning. During late years the great increase (by the wider diffusion) of nautical knowledge has not only much shortened sea passages, but has rendered them more

secure and less liable to mistakes, as well as to such uncertain delays as occurred so often formerly.

The great advantages of making a quick passage are admitted, in a general way, no doubt, but we do not always realize to ourselves the ship-owner's, the merchant's, or even the public interest in the question. If a frigate, with important despatches, is some days later in arriving at her destination than might be the case, the possible consequences may be disastrous, but the expense is not thought of because it does not affect individuals, and because the ship is maintained in continuous service for a considerable period, probably some years; but for every day that a merchant ship is delayed beyond the expected or an average time of passage, not only do passengers suffer more or less inconvenience, affecting health, it may be, if not life itself, but the merchant loses and the shipowner loses. The expense of pay, provisions, and wear and tear of a large ship full of cargo and passengers, is from 50*l.* to 100*l.* daily; besides which direct expense, there is the diminution of that ship's annual earnings, by the delay unnecessarily caused before she can commence another voyage. Thus the injurious effects of a long passage are compound, and though well known to the owners of clipper ships are not so clearly recognised by the public at large.

In the United States the Superintendent of the National Observatory, the celebrated Maury, has continued his labours indefatigably, as evidenced by new charts, valued books, and useful correspondence. In Holland the Meteorological Institute has published three volumes of nautical information, extracted from Dutch logs in the Indian seas as well as the Atlantic Ocean. In those volumes is also given a conversion of Maury's Pilot charts, reduced to a small scale, for every month, on a plan analogous to that of the Board of Trade. And at the Mauritius a volume has been published which is valuable for the Indian Ocean, especially to seamen. The materials for it were commenced by the zealous and much lamented meteorologist, Dr. Thom. In the United States, the medical department of the army takes charge of meteorology on land, where their stations are numerous and widely scattered. In their navy the captains are responsible (as in our own service), but one may express a hope, perhaps, that medical officers at sea may be willingly enlisted among efficient co-operators, if encouraged by the authorities. Unless some person is specially interested in the subject on board each ship, one cannot expect due consistency of observation, or such a degree of correctness as might be ensured by one person's even occasional supervision, in *addition* to that of the captain, who on board a ship of war has the superintendence of everything, in a *general* way.

The Report contains much important information on meteorology (more especially in a letter from the Royal Society), the barometer, dry air and aqueous vapour, temperature of the air, temperature of the sea, and investigations regarding currents, storms or gales, charts, &c. The Report is signed by Capt. Fitzroy, R.N., &c.

No. CV.—METEOROLOGICAL DEPARTMENT.

Report of the Meteorological Department of the Board of Trade.

A SERIES of meteorological papers was commenced in 1857, of which the second number is now in the press. It is proposed to continue these papers as frequently as material for them can be duly prepared. There is no deficiency of facts, useful to navigators, and interesting to science; but time, pains, and expense are, of course, indispensable for due publication of even such data as are already collected. Numerous scientific journals and registers kept on board her Majesty's surveying and exploring ships contain information in manuscript well worth circulating among those to whom it is of value. Scarcely a log-book has been examined in this office, in which remarkable occurrences have not been noted for extracting, with a view to publication in connection with subjects of the same class or character. Some of the meteorological logs contain notices of remarkable atmospheric changes, cyclones, or other storms, which should be traced and exhibited graphically. Such records are rendered interesting as well as valuable, independently of statistical details, by remarks which resemble the writings of Dampier, and our earlier as well as some of the best later navigators. It would indeed be ill-judged economy to consign such observations to the shelf, instead of placing them speedily within the reach of inexperienced men, just commencing their sea responsibilities.

Better wind and current charts, for all parts of the world, for each month in the year, and for considerably smaller spaces of ocean, are much required. Registers of wind kept only on shore, near the sea, can hardly be relied on like those of ships on the ocean, because land affects wind much, as is seen in land and sea breezes, and the frequent evening or night calms in a port, or on shore, while a steady breeze prevails. The experience of those captains who command clipper ships, and make extraordinary passages, is too valuable to be allowed to pass unrecorded. Such part of it as can be secured by ink and paper is so much gained for their successors; therefore, on this and other accounts, tables of passages for all parts of the world, alphabetically arranged, with concise directions, are required; steamers, and ships *only sailing*, having separate sets of numbers. Such tables are nearly completed, and probably each house connected with shipping, as well as many Government departments, will find them useful. During the last year much additional information has been collected from various seas, and from many foreign stations on land. From the Pacific as well as from the Atlantic Ocean, from India, and China, a considerable amount of reliable observations has been received. From more than six hundred selected ships in the mercantile marine, and many men-of-war, so large a supply of materials has been already obtained, or is in progress (besides what has been received from other sources), that the discussion and publication of results is now the principal object of anxiety, while continuing a diminished yearly collection. These results, it may be mentioned, being derived from good instruments carefully used, and duly compared, should have a permanent value. All our ships of war have now means of making good observations, and although their special duties interfere much with the regular record of them that is desirable, all that are recorded, even in ordinary log-books, are now valuable.

Since the establishment of this office, very large numbers of tested

instruments (hundreds of barometers, and thousands of thermometers and hydrometers,) have been sent afloat: of which many have been returned, re-compared, and re-issued. Detailed and exact accounts of all such changes, and comparisons kept regularly, enable the story and employment of every instrument to be recorded with careful accuracy. During the first two years (1855-57), a series of wind charts (based on the numerical data published by Maury), that was completed and circulated in the navy and mercantile marine, occupied much time; but while these charts were in progress, and since then, the tabulation and reduction of various observations, extracted from the logs and other documents above mentioned, have been proceeded with, as far as time has permitted.

Wind and weather; pressure and temperature of the air, its humidity and other characteristics; specific gravity of the ocean, its temperature and currents; and magnetism—have filled many manuscript books; and all are so recorded as to be traceable, in each case, to the original observation. Not one entry in an original document has been diminished in value by transposition and collection with others. Records of storms, and all special facts of value connected with them; instances of ice met with at sea; notices of “vigia” or unusual appearances—of aurora, electricity, meteors, and other phenomena, are carefully extracted from the original documents, and grouped in books appropriated to each subject separately, reference being always available to the original source. True it is that this method of record entails an amount of time and pains slightly discouraging, and of which the importance is not evident at first sight. From the reflection, however, that all these records are for the public, and for future as well as present reference—that some inquirers seek for special details—*single* observations only (it may be)—while others ask for *mean* results; the propriety of preserving all details appears to be indisputable. There is another reason for this arrangement—perhaps a stronger one—which is, the *publication* of these data. To print logs, or other similar original registers, is impracticable, as a *general* arrangement. Such records are too bulky, too numerous, for publication, which, moreover, after their contents are properly extracted, becomes unnecessary, all the logs being kept for reference in the office. But the printing and circulation of reduced and tabulated results, groups of observations, and individual facts of value, is expected, and may be accomplished satisfactorily.

Such observations being more available if published in considerable numbers, rather than by fragments (which, like those of divided articles in some periodicals, would have an unsatisfactory character), a large number of observations of winds and currents are being collected for a new, and more reliable, as well as more detailed series of wind and current charts of the oceans. By very numerous trials, the specific gravity of nearly all the oceanic surface has been ascertained, and it is believed that these results will render further observations of the kind unnecessary, except in peculiar and limited localities, for some special object; the general result being now demonstrated that, except in confined localities, such as the Red Sea (where it is said 1080 has been recorded), or the Indian Archipelago, there is little or no variation in the weight or saltness of the ocean water where unaffected by recent heavy rains, or the vicinity of very large rivers. Distilled water being taken as 1,000, the specific gravity of oceanic water is found to be nearly 1,027. The lowest temperature hitherto recorded, between 2,300 and 2,500 fathoms below the surface, has been 35° (in the North Atlantic,

South Atlantic, and Indian Oceans), and 86° the highest temperature, anywhere *at sea*, on the surface. After reducing and tabulating a great number of barometrical observations, it appears that within certain limits of latitude, near the equator (or rather at about five degrees of north latitude in the Atlantic Ocean), the *total* pressure on the barometer varies so little throughout the year, that (allowing for the six-hourly change) any ship crossing that part of the sea may actually compare her barometer with a natural standard, invariable within known small limits of two or three hundredths of an inch.

Possibly when these observations are still farther investigated, and the pressures of *dry* air compared together, a closer agreement *may* be discovered; but as the temperatures and hygrometric indications are strikingly uniform there, much difference in ultimate results is *not now* anticipated. Besides this *incidental* value of a mass of barometrical observations, the accurate determination of pressures and temperatures, as well as hygrometrical properties, should be mentioned, by which the respective zones of high and low barometer, the greater or less amount of aqueous vapour, the movements of atmospheric waves, and those general laws of the atmosphere which are yet to be verified, will be further elucidated. The reductions of an immense mass of hygrometric observations must be a work of time. It is steadily, though slowly, proceeding. Magnetism has not occupied *much* thought, because it is attended to zealously in other Government departments; but all observations obtained are tabulated for future use. However, the Report of the Liverpool Compass Committee and three Pamphlets on the Deviation of the Compass were more or less attended to in printing and otherwise in this department of the Board of Trade, whence, indeed, and by the Admiralty, they were stimulated originally. Either of the above subjects actively followed up requires much thought, as well as work of hand, and involves a great amount of monotonous occupation in making gradual progress towards ultimate results.

While these chief branches of public duty have been our regular employment in this office, other ramifications have been cultivated at times; and to the Report of 1857 reference is again necessary here to show why the following matters have been subjects of anxious attention. They are almost completed, and are now in course of publication.

First. A passage table to show the length of passages between any frequented seaports (by steamers as well as by sailing ships), and giving the least possible distance that must be traversed between them. This table, arranged in alphabetical order, and accompanied by sailing directions, of a brief and generalized character, may be found, it is hoped, a useful work of reference, especially if corrected periodically, so as to be kept up to the requirements of future years.

Second. Concise and ready methods of applying the principles of great circle sailing *in practice*, for the use of officers afloat, concerned in passages.

Third. A manual of instructions for the use of barometers and thermometers as weather-glasses, in two forms, one for fishermen and coasters, the other for young officers at sea.

Fourth. A translation of a Dutch pamphlet on the Herring Fishery, which shows that herrings seek such parts of the North Sea as are not colder than 54° or warmer than 58° , and tends to show the comparative inutility of casting nets for them where the surface water is not between these limits of temperature.

And fifth. A translation (with conversion of foreign quantities), of Dove's last work on "Winds," recently published in Germany.

Much interest having been created by successive developments of the laws of storms, winds, and general circulation of the atmosphere, the Royal Society and British Association requested Government to institute a series of regular and continuous observations at specific points on the Atlantic.

Three anemometers (Osler's Self-registering, with Robinson's cups) are nearly completed, which are intended for Bermuda, Halifax, and another place (not yet decided).

In connexion with this interesting subject, a series of atmospheric wind charts is in progress here, intended to exhibit the simultaneous states of atmosphere over the British Islands and adjacent seas, especially the direction of wind current, and its strength at certain times (9 A.M. and 3 P.M.), rain also, and fog, during six consecutive months (October 1856 to March 1857 inclusive).

Among the results already obtained from these charts (which eventually may exceed three hundred in number) is the true north and south or meridional direction of certain atmospheric wave lines—(those of the troughs as well as those of the crests)—the diminution of the wind's strength, or force, over land; and evidence of a continuous alternation, or opposition of the great polar and equatorial currents of the atmosphere.

The Board of Trade having sanctioned (by way of experiment) some assistance being given by Government to enable poor fishermen, and those employed on the more exposed shores of our islands (when unable to afford the expense themselves) to benefit by the use of weather glasses; steps have been taken towards carrying it into practice. Ten substantial barometers, strongly made, durable, and easy to observe, are already located as experimental loans at the undermentioned places; and with them, many copies of plain directions for their use have been distributed.

The Scotch Fishery Board has aided, in this matter, materially. In their Eastern district (*only*, as yet) a selection has been made, by the Board of Trade, of the following fishing stations:—Newhaven, Anstruther, Arbroath, Rosehearty, Whitehills, Port Easay (or Portessie), Lybster, Dunbeath, and Lerwick.

In the West of England the most exposed places are in Cornwall. A barometer is placed, therefore, near St. Ives, and one will be in Mount's Bay, as being the greatest resorts of fishermen in that neighbourhood.

Such assistance is urgently needed on the north-west coasts of Ireland and Scotland, in the Shetland Isles, and on the East coast of England.

Disaster and loss of life among the fishing population of those places—especially Lerwick, Banffshire, and Innishowen—have been narrated in public prints. Many of these calamities might have been avoided by the judicious use of weather glasses.

The addition made by Lord Stanley of Alderley to the space and staff of this Office has enabled us to work more effectively; and though I earnestly desire to apply more strength of head and hands to the reduction and discussion of observations (while rather diminishing their annual collection), and though assured that money would be preferably employed in this direction, I am thankful for the means now available, and have cause to speak much in favour of the support given by my assistants.

P.S.—In America, the originator of national co-operation for the collection and publication of useful maritime knowledge—the celebrated Maury

—has indefatigably persevered; and the United States Government has most liberally continued to supply this country with hundreds of copies of his works for gratuitous distribution among those sea-officers who engage to contribute information. Holland has co-operated largely, and communicated not only her printed results, but much special manuscript information, through the zealous kindness of MM. Buys Ballot and Van Gogh. France has established an office for similar purposes, aided by our instruments and arrangements, and has published a translation of Maury's Sailing Directions. Spain, Austria, Denmark, and Portugal have proceeded similarly. Officers from each of those countries have personally visited this Office and the observatories at Greenwich and Kew. It is well known on how large a scale Germany and Russia have long been collecting meteorological observations, which have been used by philosophers of the highest reputation. But these records are apart from, though intimately related to, such "meteorological observations at sea" as have been the "speciality" (or more *particular* subject of attention) in this department of the Board of Trade.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

SERIES D.—RAILWAYS, SHIPPING, &c.

21° & 22° VICTORIÆ.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

RAILWAY CHEAP TRAINS.

CAP. LXXV.—*An Act to amend the Laws relating to Cheap Trains, and to restrain the exercise of certain power by Canal Companies, being also Railway Companies.* (2nd August, 1858.)

When the distance travelled by any third-class passenger by any train is a portion of a mile and does not amount to one mile, the fare for such portion of a mile may be one penny; or when such distance amounts to one mile, or two or more miles and a portion of another mile, the fare for such portion of a mile if the same amounts to, or exceeds one half-mile, may be one half-penny. Children of three years and upwards, but under twelve years of age, to pay half the charge for an adult passenger. No fare to be deemed excessive, if the same has not exceeded the rate of one farthing for each extra quarter of a mile travelled. Canal Companies, being also Railway Companies, are not authorized to accept a lease of the whole or any part of the undertaking of any other Railway and Canal Company. The Act to be in force for one year.

IRELAND.

PORTUMNA BRIDGE.

CAP. XXIII.—*An Act for abolishing the Tolls, now levied on the Bridge over the Shannon at Portumna in Ireland.* (14th June, 1858.)

RAILWAY ACT (CONTINUANCE).

CAP. XXXIV.—*An Act to continue, "the Railway Act (Ireland), 1851."* (12th July, 1858.)

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

21° & 22° VICTORIA.

SERIES A.—FINANCE, COMMERCE, AND AGRICULTURE.

UNITED KINGDOM.

LADY HAVELOCK AND SIR H. M. HAVELOCK'S ANNUITIES.

CAP. II.—*An Act to settle Annuities on Lady Havelock and Sir Henry Marshman Havelock, in consideration of the eminent Services of the late Major-General Havelock.* (22nd March, 1858.)

An annuity of 1,000*l.* to be paid to Lady Havelock, widow of the late Major-General Henry Havelock, for the term of her own natural life, and a like annuity of 1,000*l.* to Sir Henry Marshman Havelock, Bart., eldest son of the late Major-General Havelock, for the term of his natural life.

CONSOLIDATED FUND.

CAP. V.—*An Act to apply the Sum of 10,000,000*l.* out of the Consolidated Fund to the Service of the Year 1858.* (26th March, 1858.)

CAP. VI.—*An Act to apply the Sum of 500,000*l.* out of the Consolidated Fund to the Service of the Year ending the 31st Day of March, 1858.* (26th March, 1858.)

CUSTOMS DUTIES.

CAP. XII.—*An Act for the alteration of certain Duties of Customs.* (11th May, 1858.)

The duties of customs on chloride of lime and platina wire to cease. The duties on bonnets of felt to be 6*d.* each, and on the manufacture of caoutchouc 2*d.* per lb. The duty on stearine to be 3*s.* 6*d.* per cwt., and on stearine candles 3*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.

EXCHEQUER BILLS.

CAP. XIII.—*An Act for raising the Sum of 20,911,500*l.* by Exchequer Bills for the Service of the Year 1858.* (11th May, 1858.)

EXCHEQUER BONDS.

CAP. XIV.—*An Act for raising the Sum of 2,000,000*l.* by Exchequer Bonds.* (11th May, 1858.)

The Treasury may cause Exchequer Bonds to be made out for a sum not exceeding 2,000,000*l.*, such bonds to bear interest not exceeding 10*s.* per centum per annum, to be paid off at par at the expiration of any period not exceeding six years from the date of such bonds.

EXCISE DUTIES.

CAP. XV.—*An Act for granting certain additional Rates and Duties of Excise.* (11th May, 1858.)

Upon every gallon of spirits, of the strength of hydrometer proof, distilled in Ireland, or in the stock or possession of any person in Ireland, there shall be paid, on and after the 19th day of April, 1858, the additional duty of 1*s.* 10*d.*, and so in proportion for any greater or less degree of strength, or any greater or less quantity; and upon every gallon of spirits, of the nature and quality of British spirits, manufactured or distilled in the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Sark, respectively, and imported from any of the said islands into Ireland, there shall be charged the duty of 9*s.*, in lieu of the countervailing duties previously charged. No drawback of excise to be allowed on any made wine removed from England or Scotland to Ireland.

CUSTOMS' DUTIES.

CAP. XVI.—*An Act for the further Amendment of the Duties of Customs.* (11th May, 1858.)

Spirits, rum, shrub, cordials, and liqueurs, of and from a British Possession in America or the island of Mauritius, and rum of and from any British Possessions within the limits of the East India Company's charter, to pay on their importation into Ireland a duty of 8*s.* 2*d.* per gallon.

CONSOLIDATED FUND.

CAP. XVII.—*An Act to apply the Sum of Eleven Millions out of the Consolidated Fund to the Service of the Year 1858.* (21st May, 1858.)

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STAMP DUTY ON PASSPORTS.

CAP. XXIV.—*An Act to reduce the Stamp Duties on Passports.*
(14th June, 1858.)

From and after the passing of this Act the stamp duty on passports to be sixpence.

FUNDED DEBT.

CAP. XXXVIII.—*An Act to repeal certain Provisions for the Issue of the Consolidated Fund of fixed Amounts for the Reduction of the Funded Debt.* (23rd July, 1858.)

The 22nd section of 18 & 19 Vict., c. 18, providing for the extinction of a portion of the funded debt of Great Britain and Ireland, viz., to a sum equal to 16,000,000*l.* raised by that Act was repealed.

COPYRIGHT OF DESIGNS.

CAP. LXX.—*An Act to amend the Act of the Fifth and Sixth Years of Her present Majesty to consolidate and amend the Laws relating to the Copyright of Designs for ornamenting Articles of Manufacture.* (2nd August, 1858.)

In the application of any new and original design for ornamenting any article of manufacture, the term of copyright shall be three years, to be computed from the time of such design being registered, provided nevertheless that the term of such copyright shall expire on the 30th of December in the second year after the year in which such design was registered, whatever may be the day of such registration. The proprietor of any new and original design applied to ornamenting any article of manufacture not to be prejudiced provided the articles are marked with the name and address of such proprietor, and the word "Registered," together with the years for which such design was registered. The registration of any pattern, or portion of an article of manufacture, to which a design is applied, instead of a copy, is to be as valid as if such copy or specification had been furnished. The proprietor of such extended copyright shall, if desired, give the number and the date of the registration of any article of manufacture so marked. Any person wilfully applying any mark of registration to any article of manufacture, in respect whereof the application of the design thereto shall not have registered, or after the term of copyright shall have expired, or who shall during the term of copyright, without the authority of the proprietor, wilfully apply the mark printed on the piece of any article of manufacture, or who shall knowingly sell or issue any article of manufacture to which such mark has been wilfully and without due authority applied, to be subject to a penalty of 10*l.*, to be recovered by the proprietor of such design, with full costs of suit. Proceedings for prevention of piracy may be instituted in the County Courts.

CONSOLIDATED FUND APPROPRIATION.

CAP. CVII.—*An Act to apply a Sum out of the Consolidated Fund and the Surplus of Ways and Means to the Service of the Year 1858, and to appropriate the Supplies granted in this Session of Parliament. (2nd August, 1858.)*

There shall be applied for the service of the year 1858 the sum of 11,226,255*l.* out of the Consolidated Fund. The Treasury may apply for the service of the year 1858 the sum of 4,327,292*l.* 18*s.* 11*d.*, surplus of ways and means.

NAVY.—There shall be issued 9,839,859*l.* for navy services, viz. :—2,401,599*l.* for wages to 59,380 seamen and marines; 1,027,357*l.* for victuals, &c., in the navy; 140,439*l.* for salaries of the Admiralty Office; 178,592*l.* for coast-guard service and Royal Naval Coast Volunteers; 60,615*l.* for the scientific departments; 151,634*l.* for naval establishments at home; 27,279*l.* for naval establishments abroad; 966,921*l.* for wages of artificers at home; 54,671*l.* for wages of artificers abroad; 1,389,742*l.* for naval stores, &c.; 585,682*l.* for naval works in naval establishments; 50,000*l.* for medicines, &c.; 71,470*l.* for naval miscellaneous services; 694,148*l.* for naval half-pay, &c.; 480,061*l.* for military pensions; 160,481*l.* for civil pensions; 410,500*l.* for freight of ships, conveyance of troops, &c.; and 988,488*l.* for packet service.

ARMY.—500,000*l.* for army services for embodied militia; 4,007,738*l.* for army services, as follows, viz. :—538,317*l.* for wages of artificers, &c.; 689,460*l.* for clothing and necessaries; 1,051,624*l.* for provisions, barrack furniture, &c.; 285,736*l.* for fortifications; 128,780*l.* for works, buildings, &c.; 679,091*l.* for barracks; 8,003,010*l.* for other army services, viz., 3,681,027*l.* for forces in the United Kingdom and stations abroad, except East Indies; 615,661*l.* for miscellaneous charges at home and abroad, except India; 150,000*l.* for embodied militia; 88,000*l.* for volunteer corps; 182,977*l.* for salaries, &c., of War Department: 349,000*l.* for manufacturing departments, military storekeepers, barrack masters, &c.; 178,287*l.* for educational and scientific branches; 25,330*l.* for rewards for military service; 59,511*l.* for pay of general officers; 531,207*l.* for reduced and retired officers; 208,132*l.* for pensions to widows and compassionate list, &c.; 51,243*l.* for pensions, gratuities, &c., to wounded officers; 31,372*l.* for pensioners of Chelsea and Kilmainham Hospitals; 1,202,863*l.* for out-pensioners of Chelsea Hospital, &c.; 130,410*l.* for superannuation and retired allowances; 90,000*l.* for surveys and topographical department; and 432,990*l.* for disembodied militia. There shall be issued out of the supplies 20,911,500*l.* to pay off and discharge Exchequer bills; 2,000,000*l.* to pay off and discharge Exchequer bonds; and 100,000*l.* for civil contingencies.

REVENUE DEPARTMENT.—There may be issued 2,026,031*l.* for Post Office; 1,362,258*l.* for Inland Revenue Department; 485,575*l.* for super-

annuities, Customs, Inland Revenue, and Post Office; and 849,285*l.* for Customs Department.

CIVIL SERVICES.—For civil services, class 1, there was appropriated 46,219*l.* for repair of royal palaces; 110,651*l.* for maintenance, &c., of public buildings, temporary accommodation; 26,926*l.* for furniture for public departments; 99,667*l.* for repairs of royal parks, &c.; 160,793*l.* for new Houses of Parliament; 30,800*l.* for addition to War Office; 31,000*l.* for Probate Court and district registries; 4,707*l.* for embassy houses, &c., abroad; 170,000*l.* for harbours of refuge; 21,000*l.* for Holyhead harbour; 1,049*l.* for Port Patrick harbour; 60,651*l.* for public buildings in the department of Public Works in Ireland; and 18,506*l.* for Kingstown harbour.

For civil services, class 2, there was appropriated as follows:—68,107*l.* for salaries, &c., of Houses of Parliament; 54,000*l.* for the Treasury; 24,799*l.* for the Home Department; 76,900*l.* for the Foreign Department; 29,134*l.* for Department of Colonies; 67,847*l.* for Privy Council, Railway, and Marine Departments, &c.; 2,720*l.* for establishment of Lord Privy Seal, &c.; 5,223*l.* for Civil Service Commission; 17,198*l.* for Paymaster-General's Department; 6,255*l.* for the Department of Comptroller-General of the Exchequer; 26,575*l.* for office of Commissioners of Works and Public Buildings; 22,980*l.* for office of Woods, Forests, &c.; 21,009*l.* for Public Records Department and State Paper Office; 216,060*l.* for administration of Poor Laws; 36,639*l.* for the Mint; 22,010*l.* for salaries, &c., of inspectors of factories; 6,251*l.* for civil charges, &c., Scotland; 6,431*l.* for officers, &c., of Lord Lieutenant of Ireland; 15,804*l.* for Chief Secretary, &c., Ireland; 7,119*l.* for Paymaster of Civil Services, Ireland; 2,613*l.* for inspectors of lunatic asylums, Ireland; 22,615*l.* for Board of Public Works, Ireland; 35,768*l.* for Department of Commissioners for Auditing the Public Accounts; 17,879*l.* for Copyhold, &c., Commission; 12,530*l.* for imprest expenses of Copyhold, &c., Commission; 38,800*l.* for General Register Office England and Wales; 5,652*l.* for Department of Registrar of Births, Deaths, and Marriages, Edinburgh; 14,355*l.* for National Debt Office; 2,800*l.* for Public Works Commissioners; 1,770*l.* for West Indian Relief Commission; 9,820*l.* for Lunacy Commission; 1,223*l.* for General Superintendent of County Roads in South Wales; 2,103*l.* for registrars of friendly societies; 32,000*l.* for foreign and other secret services; 401,357*l.* for stationery, &c., for public departments; and 123,100*l.* for postage of letters on the public service.

For civil services, class 3, there was appropriated as follows:—46,375*l.* for office of Solicitor to the Treasury, including prosecutions relating to coin, &c.; 150,000*l.* for prosecutions at assizes and quarter sessions; 214,200*l.* for police in counties and boroughs in England and Wales; 200*l.* for Crown Office, Chancery; 1,500*l.* for Crown Office, Queen's Bench; 14,419*l.* for expenses incurred by Sheriffs, and deficiency of fees in the Exchequer; 5,940*l.* for department of Registrar of the Admiralty; 6,825*l.* for Insolvent Debtors' Court; 35,162*l.* for Court of Probate, &c.; 157,050*l.*

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for treasurers of county courts; 25,428*l*. for police courts of the metropolis; 128,607*l*. for metropolitan police; 3,945*l*. for Queen's prison; 3,342*l*. for Lord Advocate and Solicitor-General, Scotland; 18,577*l*. for salaries, Court of Session, Scotland; 11,261*l*. for Court of Justiciary, Scotland; 5,550*l*. for criminal prosecutions by Lord Advocate; 1,860*l*. for certain officers in the Exchequer in Scotland; 25,000*l*. for criminal prosecutions, &c., in Scotland; 11,955*l*. for Procurator Fiscal in Scotland; 13,110*l*. for Sheriffs' clerks, Scotland; 2,250*l*. for salaries of law officers in Scotland; 15,118*l*. for General Register House, Edinburgh; 1,124*l*. for department of Commissary Clerk, Edinburgh; 1,675*l*. for department of Accountant in Bankruptcy, Scotland; 26,620*l*. for criminal prosecutions, Ireland; 3,726*l*. for Court of Chancery, Ireland; 2,599*l*. for Court of Queen's Bench, Ireland; 3,480*l*. for Court of Common Pleas; 3,975*l*. for Court of Exchequer, Ireland; 200*l*. for clerk to taxing officers for law courts, Ireland; 5,850*l*. for registrars to judges, Ireland; 2,348*l*. for officer for registration of judgments in Ireland; 9,546*l*. for salaries, &c., of Insolvent Debtors' Court, Ireland; 8,872*l*. for Court of Probate, &c., Ireland; 830*l*. for revising barristers, Dublin; 267*l*. for salary of clerks to Court of Errors, Ireland; 1,600*l*. for salaries of police justices, Dublin; 36,500*l*. for metropolitan police, Dublin; 664,287*l*. for constabulary force, Ireland; 2,563*l*. for Four Courts, Marshalsea, Dublin; 17,703*l*. for general superintendence of prisons, &c.; 380,756*l*. for Government prisons and convict establishments at home; 140,023*l*. for maintenance of prisoners and removal of convicts; 24,715*l*. for transportation of convicts: and 225,968*l*. for convict establishments in the colonies.

For civil services, class 4, there was appropriated as follow:—79,275*l*. for salaries and expenses of British Museum; 26,887*l*. for new buildings, &c., at British Museum; 5,000*l*. for purchases for British Museum; 663,435*l*. for public education in Great Britain; 83,730*l*. for Department of Science and Art, Geological Surveys; 223,000*l*. for education, Ireland; 680*l*. for salary to Secretary of Commissioners of Education, Ireland; 3,654*l*. for London University; 7,510*l*. for grants to Scottish Universities; 2,323*l*. for Queen's University, Ireland; 4,800*l*. for Queen's Colleges, Ireland; 500*l*. for Royal Irish Academy; 300*l*. for Royal Hibernian Academy; 2,500*l*. for Royal Belfast Academical Institutions, &c.; 16,174*l*. for National Gallery; 5,039*l*. for Magnetic Observatories; 300*l*. for Royal Geographical Society; 1,000*l*. for Royal Society.

For civil services, class 5, there was appropriated as follow:—4,050*l*. for civil establishments of the British Bermudas; 6,878*l*. for ecclesiastical establishment, British North American Provinces; 3,888*l*. for Indian department in Canada; 24,728*l*. for salaries of Governors, &c., of West India Colonies, &c.; 20,550*l*. for salaries, &c., of stipendiary justices in West India Colonies and the Mauritius; 10,230*l*. for civil establishments on the western coast of Africa; 7,262*l*. for St. Helena; 960*l*. for Heligoland; 4,376*l*. for Falkland Islands; 6,021*l*. for Labuan; 10,000*l*. for Hong Kong; 7,914*l*.

for Western Australia; 12,828*l.* for Emigration Board, &c.; 1,100*l.* for support of captured negroes, &c.; 187,527*l.* for consular establishments abroad; 40,000*l.* for missions abroad; 11,050*l.* for commissioner for suppressing the slave trade.

For civil services, class 6, there was appropriated as follow:—162,889*l.* for superannuation to public officers; 1,978*l.* for Toulonese and Corsican emigrants; 2,000*l.* for National Vaccine Institution; 325*l.* for the Refuge of the Destitute; 3,515*l.* for Polish refugees and distressed Spaniards; 4,281*l.* for miscellaneous allowances; 2,717*l.* for public infirmaries, Ireland; 2,600*l.* for Westmoreland Lock Hospital, Dublin; 700*l.* for Rotunda Lying-in Hospital, Dublin; 200*l.* for Coombe Lying-in Hospital; 7,600*l.* for Hospitals House of Industry, Dublin; 2,500*l.* for House of Recovery and Fever Hospital, Cork-street, Dublin; 600*l.* for Meath Hospital, Dublin; 1,300*l.* for Dr. Steevens' Hospital, Dublin; 285*l.* for Board of superintendence of hospitals, Dublin; 9,341*l.* for charitable allowances, &c., Ireland; 39,400*l.* for Protestant ministers, Ireland.

For civil services, class 7, there was appropriated as follow:—3,568*l.* for Ecclesiastical Commissioners, England; 16,340*l.* for Charity Commission for England and Wales; 20,000*l.* for Encumbered Estates Commission, Ireland; 11,402*l.* for sundry temporary commissions; 26,198*l.* for compensations payable under the Patent Law Amendment; 13,822*l.* for Board of Fisheries, Scotland; 2,000*l.* for annuity to Board of Manufacture, Scotland; 5,000*l.* for Commissioners of Highland roads and bridges; 2,000*l.* for bounties on slaves and slave vessels captured; 900*l.* for publication of ancient laws, Ireland; 9,000*l.* for pay of process servers, Ireland; 58,900*l.* for pensions to masters and seamen under the Merchant Seamen's Fund Act; 2,084*l.* for registration of Joint Stock Companies; 1,693*l.* for Registration of Designs Office; 50,000*l.* for payments under treaties of reciprocity; 4,700*l.* for inspectors of corn returns; 20,000*l.* for distressed seamen abroad; 3,600*l.* for expenses of quarantine arrangements; 17,850*l.* for revising barristers in England and Wales; 3,856*l.* for constabulary police at military camps; 3,000*l.* for inspection of burial grounds in England and Wales; 1,053*l.* for certain professors at Cambridge; 27,100*l.* for lighthouses abroad; 1,000*l.* for arrangements connected with Orange River territory; 20,000*l.* for promoting civilization among native tribes in South Africa; 29,940*l.* for expenses on account of the treasury chest; 2,000*l.* for National Portrait Gallery; 2,000*l.* for inquiry on cholera, West Indies; 1,000*l.* for defining boundaries of counties, &c., Ireland; 3,100*l.* for agricultural and emigration statistics, Ireland; 6,318*l.* for repaying purchase moneys for lands for new public offices, Belfast; 15,000*l.* for extension of Four Courts, Dublin; 5,000*l.* for National Gallery, Dublin; 1,000*l.* for fittings for new museum and library, Royal Dublin Society; 10,000*l.* for Industrial Museum, Edinburgh; 2,033*l.* for Antiquarian Museum, Royal Institution, Edinburgh; 7,500*l.* for additional accommodation General Register House, Edinburgh; 200*l.* for iron presses for General Record

Depository; 6,000*l.* for completing the Nelson Column; 8,836*l.* for examination of plans of drainage of London; 111,429*l.* for Westminster Bridge; 1,500*l.* for embankment approach to castle, &c., Windsor; 70,000*l.* for premises in Doctors' Commons; 19,296*l.* for British Embassy House, Paris; 13,000*l.* for consular offices, &c., at Constantinople; 1,092*l.* for purchases of old gun metal for statues, &c.; 3,000*l.* for History of the Euphrates Expedition, by General Chesney; 5,000*l.* for Newhaven Harbour, Sussex; 1,500*l.* for exploring British North America; 6,479*l.* for General Board of Health; and 20,000*l.* for Wellington Monument.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

LOAN SOCIETIES.

CAP. XIX.—*An Act to continue an Act of the 3rd and 4th Year of Her Majesty, cap. 110, to amend the Laws relating to Loan Societies.* (21st May, 1858.)

The 3rd and 4th Vict. to continue in force until the 1st day of August, 1863.

STAMP DUTY ON DRAFTS.

CAP. XX.—*An Act for granting a Stamp Duty on certain Drafts or Orders for the Payment of Money.* (21st May, 1858.)

All drafts or orders for the payment of any sum of money to the bearer on demand, which being drawn upon any banker, or any person or persons acting as a banker, and residing or transacting the business of a banker within fifteen miles of the place where such drafts or orders are issued, are now exempt from stamp duty, to be chargeable with the stamp duty of one penny for every such draft or order.

JOINT STOCK COMPANIES.

CAP. LX.—*An Act to amend the Joint Stock Companies Acts, 1856 and 1857; and the Joint Stock Banking Companies Act, 1857.* (23rd July, 1858.)

A petition, praying that a voluntary winding up may continue, subject to the supervision of the court, shall, for the purpose of giving jurisdiction to the court over suits and actions, and over the appointment of a receiver, be deemed to be a petition for winding up the company by the court, and in determining whether a company is to be wound up altogether compulsorily or under the provisions of the said 19th section, the court may have regard to the wishes of the majority in number and value of the creditors. The court may appoint additional liquidators, with the same obligations and standing in the same position as the liquidators appointed by the company. When an order is made by the court in pursuance of the 19th section for the continuance of a voluntary winding up, the liquidators may continue to exercise the same powers as if the company were being

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wound up altogether voluntarily, but such order will confer on the court full authority to make calls, to enforce calls made by the liquidators, and to exercise all other powers as if the company had been altogether wound up by the court. In compulsory winding up, or continuance of voluntary winding up by decree or order, contributories may be decreed to pay calls. When such order has been made, no action or suit may be proceeded with. The court may order the inspection of books and papers, and may also appoint the voluntary liquidators to be official liquidators with authority to exercise any specified powers without the intervention of the court. Any general or partial scheme of liquidation, if approved of by the court, to be binding on all the creditors and contributories of the company. The practice in use under the winding up Acts to be reserved until new rules are framed. Any order made by the court in England for or in the course of the winding up of a company under the Joint Stock Companies Act, to be enforced in Scotland and Ireland, and *vice versa*. Where a company is being voluntarily wound up the liquidators may apply to the court for aid, and the court may make such orders as it may think fit. The company may fill up any vacancy occasioned by the death or resignation of any liquidator appointed by the company. The liquidators may invest any money in Government securities. In fixing the amount payable by any contributory, in pursuance of the Joint Stock Companies Acts, he shall be debited with the amount of all debts due from him to the company, including the amount of the call, and shall be credited with all sums due to him from the company, or any independent contract or dealing between him and the company, and the balance, after making such debit and credit as aforesaid, shall be deemed to be the sum due. All calls to be proveable against the bankrupt's or insolvent's estate. The 16th section of the Joint Stock Companies Act was repealed. The liquidator to have power to compromise all calls and liabilities to calls, debts, &c., between the company and any contributory or other debtors; but when an order has been made, no such compromise to be made except in accordance with the direction of the court. Criminal prosecutions may be instituted when any of the directors, public managers, or members have been guilty of any offence. Companies may register for purposes of winding up.

JOINT STOCK BANKING COMPANIES.

CAP. XCIV.—*An Act to enable Joint Stock Banking Companies to be formed on the principle of Limited Liability.* (2nd August, 1858.)

The prohibition to form limited banking companies was repealed; but no banking companies claiming to issue notes in the United Kingdom to be entitled to limited liability in respect of such issue, and if necessary the assets shall be marshalled for the benefit of the general creditors, and the shareholders shall be liable for the whole amount of the issue, in addition to the sums for which they would be liable as shareholders of a limited com-

pany. The registration of banking companies not to prejudice the right of any company to register itself again as a limited company. On re-registration with limited liability, thirty days' notice of the intention so to register must be given to every person and firm having a banking account with the company, the same notice to be delivered or posted, addressed to him or them at their known address. In default of notice, unlimited liability to continue as to such customers. Every limited Joint Stock Banking Company must, before commencing business, make a statement, showing that the liability of the shareholders is limited; the capital of the company; the number of shares; the amount of calls, and the liability and assets of the company. A copy of such statement must be put in a conspicuous place in the registered office of the company. Limited Joint Stock Banking Companies may be wound up in the same manner and under the same jurisdiction as that in which Joint Stock Banking Companies, other than limited, are required to be wound up under the Joint Stock Companies Act, 1857.

ENGLAND.

CAMBRIDGE DEGREES STAMPS.

CAP. XI.—*An Act to repeal the Stamp Duties payable on Matriculation and Degrees in the University of Cambridge.* (11th May, 1858.)

All stamp duties payable on the admission or matriculation of any person in the University of Cambridge, and on the admission of any person to any degree in the said university, or for the registry or entry of any such admission were repealed. The salaries made payable by the university not to be discontinued or reduced without the consent of the Treasury. The salaries being as follows:—The Professor of Modern History, 371*l.*; the Professor of Civil Law, 100*l.*; the Professor of Chemistry, 100*l.*; the Professor of Anatomy, 100*l.*; the Professor of Botany, 182*l.*; the Jacksonian Professor, 100*l.*; the Professor of Mineralogy, 100*l.*

COMMISSIONERS OF EXHIBITION 1851.

CAP. XXXVI.—*An Act for releasing the Lands of the Commissioners of the Exhibition of 1851, upon the repayment of Moneys granted in aid of their Funds.* (12th July, 1858.)

Upon payment by the Commissioners for the Exhibition of 1851 of the sum of 181,379*l.* 4*s.* 2*d.*, the Commissioners of the Exhibition and all the lands purchased by the same shall be absolutely released and discharged. The land occupied by the Department of Science and Art may be retained for such department.

CORNWALL SUBMARINE MINES.

CAP. CIX.—*An Act to declare and define the respective Rights of her Majesty and of his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales and Duke of Cornwall to the Mines and Minerals in or under Land lying below high-water Mark, within and adjacent to the County of Cornwall, and for other Purposes.* (2nd August, 1858.)

All mines and minerals lying under the seashore between high and low water marks in Cornwall, and under estuaries and tidal rivers and other places (below high-water mark) even below low-water mark, are vested in his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales and Duke of Cornwall. All mines and minerals lying below low-water mark under the open sea adjacent to, but not being part of Cornwall, to be vested in the Queen her Majesty, and her lessees may have liberty to work such minerals through the lands of such Duchy. In case of any difference between her Majesty or any of her tenants under lease, and the Duke of Cornwall or any of his tenants, as to the true line of high and low-water mark, the same is to be settled by arbitration or umpirage.

SCOTLAND.

HERRING FISHERIES.

CAP. LXIX.—*An Act to impose Fees on the Branding of Barrels under the Acts concerning the Herring Fisheries in Scotland.* (2nd August, 1858.)

A fee of 4*d.* per barrel and 2*d.* per half barrel, to be payable on branding or marking barrels of herrings, the fees to be paid to the officers of the establishment, and the moneys so received to be accounted to the Treasury, and paid into the Consolidated Fund.

No. CXXIX.—PROMOTION AND RETIREMENT IN THE ARMY.

Report of the Commissioners appointed to inquire into the question of Promotion and Retirement in the higher ranks of the Army, commencing with the rank of Major.

THE Commission was issued on the 12th April, 1858, to His Royal Highness the Duke of Cambridge, His Grace the Duke of Newcastle, Earl Grey, Lord Panmure, Lord Rokeby, Mr. Sidney Herbert, Mr. Edward Ellice, Sir James Yorke Scarlett, Sir William Fenwick Williams, Sir John Smith, Sir Henry Storks, and Colonel Henry Eyre.

The Commissioners reported as follows:—

The Warrant of 1854 abolished the system of irregular periodical brevets, and substituted a fixed establishment of general officers, exclusive of those who, not having served six years as field officers, received the rank of general, but with the half-pay only of the last regimental commission which they held. To this establishment the senior colonel is promoted for every vacancy as it occurs, making on an average about twenty-three promotions to the general officers' list per annum, which is about equivalent to the numbers promoted at irregular intervals over a course of years under the old system, and maintains the number of general officers at a fixed standard, which, under the former system, was impossible. Brevets were then given at irregular periods, not only to supply the requisite number of general officers from whom to select for service and command, but also as a boon to the army upon the occurrence of events of national importance, such as a royal marriage, the birth of a Prince, &c., &c. Under this system the number of general officers was constantly fluctuating; and no colonel could calculate with any certainty at what period his turn for promotion would arrive. This uncertainty occasionally entailed very serious pecuniary loss to officers under the necessary operation of the purchase system. So far as this change is concerned, the benefit to the army and to the public service appears to us to be indisputable; nor have the interests of any class of officers been injuriously affected by it *per se*. The stream of promotion has neither been increased nor diminished, but has been rendered steady and continuous; and so far, therefore, as the interests of individuals are concerned, no injury, but on the contrary some advantage, has been conferred upon them.

But a new and important principle was at the same time introduced into the system of promotion by enacting that colonels might in future be selected for employment in major-generals' commands, and that their temporary rank might, after five years of *proved efficiency*, be converted into permanent rank. We feel bound to state that, so far as a recourse to the colonels' list for the purpose of finding efficient men for responsible commands is concerned, the necessity of so doing has by no means passed away in the interval which has elapsed since 1854. In 1856 Lord Hardinge stated his opinion on this subject in a confidential memorandum which has been laid before us. It had been decided that the army should no longer be scattered in battalions or detachments, but that it should be as much as possible, for the sake of discipline and exercise, be brigaded and habituated to act together. This decision was founded on the axiom that no army can be fit

for war which has not in peace been prepared for the duties of war. Another change, made in accordance with the recommendations of 1854, was that by which colonels might, for distinguished service in the field, be promoted to the rank of major-general, irrespective of their seniority, under certain conditions and safeguards, required for the purpose of securing that such promotion should not be given without sufficient cause. We conceive that it was intended that such promotion should not be given, except in cases in which more than ordinary ability and capacity for command have been displayed, and not for mere acts of gallantry, for which there are other and more appropriate rewards.

From the operation, then, of these two measures, affecting the rise from the colonels' to the general officers' list, both of which we think are sound in principle and tend to promote the efficiency of the service, by giving the opportunity to reward merit, and by enlarging the field from which the Crown can select for responsible commands, it follows that a certain proportion of officers arrive more rapidly than others at the rank of major-general; and as the establishment of that rank is limited, the officers rising by seniority alone are *pro tanto* delayed in their succession to that rank. It is not generally contended, as we understand, that the rule itself, as widening the area of selection for responsible commands, and tending to promote efficient men to the general officers' list at an earlier age, is in itself otherwise than beneficial, looking at the interests of the public service alone; but it is contended that it presses hardly upon colonels, who, on attaining that rank, expect to rise in succession to the rank of major-general as a reward for their past services.

We think there is justice in this complaint, and, in order to remedy it, we recommend that all colonels promoted to be major-generals after five years' employment in responsible commands with the temporary rank of major-general, and all colonels promoted to be major-generals for distinguished service in the field, shall be placed on a supernumerary list of major-generals, and shall not be reckoned as part of the fixed establishment until the time when they would have attained the rank of major-general by seniority, that is to say, until the colonel who originally stood next senior on the colonels' list to the officer promoted out of his turn has become a major-general, after which the next vacancy will be filled by the transfer of the supernumerary major-general to the fixed establishment; and that the major-generals who have already been promoted out of their turn, and would not yet have succeeded to the rank by seniority, shall be considered as coming under this rule, but they shall be specially allowed to retain the pay of 25*s.* a day which they acquired on being originally placed on the fixed establishment. But it must be clearly understood that by this recommendation it is not intended in any way to diminish the advantages enjoyed by major-generals specially promoted, but merely to prevent their promotion from delaying that of officers standing above them in the list of colonels. The supernumerary major-generals should, therefore, in our opinion, when absorbed into the fixed establishment, still preserve the seniority which they acquired when, after a period of qualifying service with temporary rank, they were first confirmed as permanent major-generals on the supernumerary list, and will rise by that seniority to be lieutenant-generals in succession. General officers promoted for distinguished service in the field will take their seniority from the date of their promotion, as stated in the *Gazette*. It is important to state this explicitly,

as great confusion might otherwise arise by reversing the relative seniority of officers.

It has been proposed to us to put a fixed limit to this supernumerary list, with a view to restrict the exercise of the power of promoting to it. We do not see, however, how a fixed limit can be assigned to a list, the numbers of which must depend on the varying circumstances of the country. However low the fixed limit might be, it probably would still be in excess of the wants of the service during peace, and possibly far short of it in war. No promotions for distinguished conduct in the field occur in peace, and in war brilliant service could scarcely be denied its reward on account of an arbitrary limit, which would soon cease to be regarded. There appears also to us to be danger that the limit would be always reached, and that the authorities would construe it as the "cadre" of a fixed establishment, which it would be their duty always to maintain complete. While declining to affix this proposed limit, we feel bound to express our opinion that it would be desirable to make a most sparing use of the power of giving the temporary rank of major-general to officers with a view to their employment in command of brigades, and especially of brigades at home, in which case, whenever it *can* be done without inconvenience, these commands might be held by colonels as brigadiers, as was formerly the practice; such colonels reverting, when their temporary duties are at an end, to their former rank, and to the command of their regiments, if such was the position they previously occupied. We cannot determine how far it would be possible, without too much interference with the rotation of reliefs either at home or abroad, to effect such reliefs in brigades rather than in battalions, thereby obviating many of those difficulties arising from the employment of colonels as brigadiers, to which we have already alluded. We, however, desire to record our conviction that as a general rule, except in the case of responsible commands abroad, the power of appointing colonels as temporary major-generals should be exercised as sparingly as possible in peace, and, we need scarcely add, never without the greatest consideration, and the utmost care in the selection of the officers to be so employed.

The Commissioners then passed to the consideration of the change, which, in its operation upon the lieutenant-colonels holding that rank before 20th June, 1854, has been most complained of, namely, that by which a lieutenant-colonel who commands a battalion or holds certain equivalent situations on the staff for three years, unless shown to be unfit, becomes *ipso facto* a full colonel. And after having provided for certain hardships entailed on the existing interests to 115 officers, the Commissioners came to the conclusion that the principle of that Warrant is not only sound, but must be preserved as indispensable to the efficiency of the upper ranks of the army; and they proposed to leave it undisturbed as regards the future, though they recommended some further modifications in detail, which will, they thought, facilitate and simplify its working. Having laid down certain principles by which the application of the Warrant should be restricted, they inquired whether the number at which the establishment of general officers was fixed in 1854 is sufficient or requires revision, and continued as follows:—

The following table shows the number of non-commissioned officers and men voted, the number of officers in the army on full pay, and the number of generals:—

Year.	No. of Non-commissioned Officers and Men voted.	No. of Officers on Full Pay, exclusive of Colonels of Regiments.	No. of General Officers being Colonels of Regiments, and No. in receipt of Unattached Pay, excluding asterisk General Officers.
1816 -	182,625	13,191	580
1829 -	103,527	5,915	434
1835 -	95,513	5,478	379
1843 -	123,717	5,764	333
Jan. 1854 }	137,045	5,585	{ 239
Nov. 1854 }			{ 274
1858 -	194,498	8,447	234

From this table it will be seen that so far as the general officers' list is considered as affording a reward for past services, and an honourable retirement to those no longer fitted for its active duties, it has ceased to afford the same advantages in proportion to the number of officers employed which it did in former years, and even so late as 1854, when the present establishment was fixed, though the earlier years quoted must not be taken as a measure of the numbers which ought now to be maintained, inasmuch as the general officers' list had at that time been unduly swollen under the influence of the protracted wars in which we had been then engaged. Still we consider that the number of the fixed establishment is scarcely proportionate to the wants of the service, especially as the present circumstances of the empire are not such as to warrant the expectation that any considerable reduction of our defensive forces at any definable period can be reasonably looked for. We are therefore of opinion that the establishment of general officers for the Guards and the Line, which was fixed by the Warrant of 1854 at 100 officers on unattached pay, in addition to the colonels of regiments, making 234 in all, is not now sufficient, owing to the increase in the number of officers in the army since the war with Russia, to afford to these officers a sufficiently early prospect of rising to the rank of major-general, with the advantages belonging to it. We therefore recommend that this establishment be increased by appointing colonels to the three new regiments which have been lately raised, and by adding 23 to the number of general officers receiving unattached pay, making the whole establishment 260 instead of 234. The list so augmented to consist of 50 generals, 80 lieutenant-generals, and 130 major-generals. In making this addition to the number of general officers for the Guards and Line, the necessity of extending a proportionate increase to the Artillery and Engineer corps was urged upon us. Assuming that the relative number of general officers awarded by the Commission of 1854 to the Guards and Line on the one hand and to the Artillery and Engineers on the other, was founded on a correct estimate of the claims and wants of the respective services, it was contended that as the scientific corps under that arrangement had 48 general officers to 234 in the line, an addition to the latter of 26 should carry with it an addition of five to the former. The Artillery and Engineer corps possess some very considerable advantages over the rest of the army. Though consisting as a force only of 27,109 men, with 1,244 officers, they have at their disposal a full-pay retirement of no less than 48,000*l.* per annum as against only 60,000*l.* enjoyed by the Guards and Line, who number 194,498 men, commanded by 8,447 officers.

It must, however, be borne in mind that these advantages were given on

the recommendation of a former Royal Commission, and are necessary in a seniority corps in which the system of purchase does not prevail, to maintain the stream of promotion.

Again, the Horse Artillery and each of the 14 battalions of Artillery have two seconded colonels, and the corps of Royal Engineers 15 seconded colonels on full pay, in addition to the colonels commandant, giving 45 additional officers on what is virtually a full-pay retirement.

Testing, indeed, the proportion of generals awarded to the number of officers serving in the Guards and Line as compared with the Artillery and Engineers, it can be shown that even after the proposed addition shall have been made to the number of general officers for the former, the number awarded to the latter by the Commission of 1854 is still in excess. That is, if the 8,447 full-pay officers of the Guards and Line have 260 generals, the same proportion, if observed with the scientific corps, would give to the 866 officers of Artillery 27 generals, and to the 378 Engineer officers 12 generals, whereas they have now 32 and 16 respectively. The Artillery, however, will not be without their share of the benefits which will accrue to the service if our recommendations should be adopted, as it so happens that of the general officers whom we propose to remove to a supernumerary list, three are Artillery officers, and their removal would therefore create three vacancies on their fixed establishment, which it would be necessary at once to fill up. The fixed establishment of the general officers will, therefore, if this arrangement be adopted, consist of 260 general officers for the Guards and Line, and 48 for the Artillery and Engineers, which numbers, together with the supernumerary list of major-generals promoted for service irrespective of seniority, will in our opinion be sufficient for the requirements of the service. We have now explained the nature of the changes which we venture to recommend as regards the establishment of general officers. We consider the proposed increase in the number of general officers to be equitable in itself, due to the interests of the army, and necessary to the efficiency of the service.

A new principle was introduced into the system of brevet promotion by the Warrant of 1854, the application of which has led to considerable inconvenience. By Art. 13 of that Warrant, any captain, major, or lieutenant-colonel might be rewarded by promotion for distinguished service in the field. This promotion would in such cases be to substantive rank, but temporarily exchangeable for brevet rank if the withdrawal of the officer from his regiment should be prejudicial to the public interests or to his own; such brevet rank to be reconvertible at a later period to substantive rank. On these conditions, therefore, brevet rank in certain cases was made exchangeable for substantive or regimental rank when promotion should be given for distinguished service in the field. It was felt that as brevet rank, except in the case of lieutenant-colonels obtaining the rank of colonel, would no longer ultimately carry the officer enjoying it step by step, without reference to service given in the rank, to the list of major-generals, the limited advantages it would confer would hardly constitute a sufficient reward for distinguished conduct in the field.

It appears from a Return not confined to the war with Russia, which has been furnished by the Horse Guards, that no less than 711 promotions by brevet have been given since 3rd December, 1854, up to the present time, and of those no less than 164 have been converted from brevet to substantive rank under the operation of the Warrant, and there are at this

moment 18 lieutenant-colonels and 60 majors on the half-pay list, converted from brevet rank, the great majority of whom are debarred from active service, though promoted for conduct in the field, and the list has been but little reduced by the late addition of second battalions to many regiments of the line, nor can they without prejudice to other older officers be appointed, as a rule, to vacancies in regiments, the officers of which, by their services, may be entitled to the step.

The Treasury have very properly observed upon this wholesale and unchecked creation of half-pay, which greatly injures the officers themselves; and the Commander-in-Chief is at a loss how to employ or provide for the large number of unattached lieutenant-colonels and majors who have thus acquired their rank, and who are greatly and permanently in excess of the wants of the service. We are strongly of opinion that means should be taken to reduce these promotions for the future within proper limits. The occasions on which an officer can achieve distinctions such as justify such substantive advancement must be very rare, as is the case with the promotion of colonels to the rank of major-general for distinguished conduct out of the course of seniority. For these reasons we propose that no officer receiving brevet promotion shall be permitted to exchange brevet for substantive rank, except for conspicuously distinguished conduct in the field, and unless substantive rank shall first and at the time have been awarded to him, and for his own interest, or for the interests of the service, he shall have been allowed temporarily to take brevet rank instead, and in every case in which such exceptional promotion shall be given, we propose, as a check on the Secretary of State and the Commander-in-Chief, who are responsible for such promotions, that the recommendation in which the service of the officer shall be detailed shall be published in the General Orders of the Army, and in the *Gazette*, with a view to ensure the responsibility attaching to a promotion thus made out of the regular course. In ordinary cases, the advantages of brevet promotion will be confined to the privileges, and in the case of majors, to the additional pay, which have always attached to brevet rank.

We further recommend, that no lieutenant-colonel be promoted by brevet to the rank of colonel, except under the above conditions and safeguards laid down to meet the case of promotions to substantive rank. We have had brought under our consideration the length of the period during which a lieutenant-colonel must serve in qualifying situations to entitle him to his promotion to the rank of colonel. At present three years' actual service as a lieutenant-colonel in command of a battalion, or an equivalent staff situation, is required as a qualification for the promotion to a colonelcy. Time spent on leave beyond a certain period is not allowed to count towards the three years, unless it be sick leave under certain conditions. The result is that a reckoning and calculation has to be made in each case, subject of course to question and protest, and no one can accurately foretell how soon his own or another's promotion will take place.

We assume that leave is not granted without sufficient reason, nor in undue periods, to officers in command or on the staff; and we are of opinion that a somewhat longer fixed period, including leave, should therefore be substituted for the shorter period, exclusive of leave, now required. We recommend therefore that the period of service with the rank of lieutenant-colonel which, under the Warrant of 1854, entitles an officer to the rank of colonel, shall be extended from three years to five; but in calculating these

five years the periods during which officers have had leave of absence shall not be deducted, but the whole time during which they have held qualifying appointments shall be reckoned. We likewise recommend, that in all cases in which six years' qualification was required in lieu of three, such longer period should be extended to eight years. At present by a regulation majors who are also brevet lieutenant-colonels, and who are in command of battalions, reckon the period during which they are in command in the absence of the lieutenant-colonel, and dating from the completion of the first month of such absence, as part of the three years qualifying for the rank of colonel. We recommend that this indulgence should be continued, the qualifying period, as in the preceding paragraph, being extended from three to five years. There are occasionally cases in the colonies where a regiment is divided in a manner to constitute in fact, as regards command, almost two distinct corps. Such has been the case for some years with the 45th Regiment at the Cape of Good Hope, the head-quarters and one wing being at Natal, and the remainder, which has become the larger half, being in British Kaffraria. The two stations have no intercourse with each other except by sea, and the regular communication is only about once a month. The senior major, who commands the portion of the regiment in British Kaffraria, is a brevet lieutenant-colonel; but though he has in fact a command equal to that of the colonel of the regiment, and unassisted by a regular staff, he is not entitled to count his time of command towards qualifying him for the rank of colonel. In cases of this description, we are of opinion that a discretionary power should be given to the Commander-in-Chief, subject in each case to the approval of the Secretary of State, to allow such service, or portions of such service, to count as part of the qualifying period. The case also of brevet lieutenant-colonels, who in consequence of their brevet rank are placed in higher detached commands, came under our notice. At the Cape of Good Hope an officer who had been promoted to the brevet rank of lieutenant-colonel for service in the field was, in consequence of his superior brevet rank, placed in the command of a district when another outbreak of the native tribes was apprehended, and had under him a considerable force, including one regiment commanded by its lieutenant-colonel. This officer was, however, only a regimental captain, and although the lieutenant-colonel under his orders was counting his time for the rank of colonel, and has since actually obtained it, he was held to be ineligible under the Warrant to count the time he was in this command, which was a period of several months, and the claim he preferred on the subject was necessarily refused when referred to the Secretary of State.

We think therefore that in the case of a brevet lieutenant-colonel commanding a corps or a mixed force of different corps, the same discretionary power should be vested in the Commander-in-Chief, subject to the approval of the Secretary of State, to allow such service, or portions of such service, to count for the rank of colonel. By an order dated 1st May, 1855, it was announced that the rank of colonel should be given to officers holding the rank of brevet lieutenant-colonel for service in the field so soon as a period of six years of actual service should have elapsed since their obtaining such brevet rank, or that they might have the option of a step of substantive unattached rank above their then regimental rank, if the convenience of the service would admit.

We recommend the discontinuance of the latter option, for the reasons

we have already stated in discussing the question of exchange of substantive for brevet rank, but we are of opinion that the brevet rank of colonel should still be given, extending the service to be rendered from six years to eight, the qualifying service of three years having in other cases been extended to five. The corps of Royal Engineers has, through some of its most distinguished officers, laid before the Commissioners a statement complaining of the operation of the Warrant of 1854 upon such of their officers as are seconded during service under civil departments of the State. Engineer officers employed in civil situations under Government may be seconded for any period not exceeding ten years, after which they must return to the effective duty of the corps, or go to the retired pay list, should they desire to continue in their civil employment. The officers while seconded retain their place in the seniority list of the corps, participating in any regimental promotion; and under the regulations in force prior to the Warrant of 1854, they shared in common with all other officers in the usual periodical brevets. They are not, however, under the new system considered to be qualifying for the superior step of field officers' rank while holding a civil appointment; though, as these officers argue, the second clause of the Treasury Minute of 14th December, 1849, under which they accepted their appointment, seems to give them a claim to all promotion. The Minute states, "that officers so situated will retain their places in the regiment as regards promotion," &c. ; and in a correspondence between the Treasury and the War Office, subsequent to the Warrant of 1854, the same provision is repeated and recognized as still applicable to seconded officers. This condition, it is argued by the Engineer officers, refers to more than regimental promotion, inasmuch as they received brevet promotion previous to 1854, and therefore conceive themselves entitled to share in that by which brevet promotion has been replaced, provided they can show that the service on which they are employed is equivalent to professional employment. The claimants also urge that seconded officers of Artillery employed in civil situations, i.e. the superintendents of the Royal Carriage Department, Gun Factory, and Powder Manufactory, at Woolwich, Enfield, and Waltham Abbey, are considered as qualifying under the Warrant for promotion to the rank of colonel; and it is added that the peculiar duties and organization of the corps of Engineers do not admit of their qualifying by the command of a battalion, an Engineer officer but rarely in any grade having troops under his command.

Sir John Burgoyne states, that the best officers are sought for by the civil departments, and in their service they acquire knowledge and practical experience, which is of the highest professional value to them afterwards, their duties, even when employed militarily, partaking always of a civil character; and that not only is the knowledge and experience gained in most of the situations held by these seconded officers of great advantage to the officers, and consequently to the corps to which they belong, but much benefit accrues to the public service from their employment; and he therefore urges that such employment should be considered equivalent to the ordinary duties of an Engineer officer. The pay which these officers receive from the civil departments, though generally about double that which they would have received as military pay, is far less than what the Government would have to give to civil engineers of equal talent and experience to perform the same duties. It appears to us that there is much truth in this statement of the case. These officers are, by the nature of their duties,

precluded from military command, and all experience in civil constructions and engineering works is experience gained for the performance of their military duties. Nor can it be for the interest of the corps that those officers who are selected by the civil departments for their intelligence should be discouraged from returning to the service, which is thus deprived of the use of the experience they have acquired.

The Treasury Minute may possibly be susceptible of two interpretations, but the Treasury themselves have in a correspondence recorded their opinion that the wording of the Minute implied a promise of the promotion claimed by the lieutenant-colonels of Engineers. Such then being the nature of the service of these officers, and the Treasury having distinctly recognized their claim to count their time, we are of opinion that it should be admitted. In consideration, however, of the superior emoluments they enjoy, and their temporary release from military service, some distinction should, in our opinion, be maintained between the officers thus serving under civil departments and those who remain under military authority; we are of opinion therefore that eight years of such service should, in future appointments, be required to qualify them for the rank of colonel. The manner in which the Warrant of 1854 has acted upon the promotion of the Guards has been strongly urged upon our attention. Under the system previously existing, every captain in the Guards was then as now a lieutenant-colonel in the army, and while performing duty as a company officer only, he rose through the grades of field officer, but without necessarily performing any field officer's duty whatever, to be an effective major-general, inasmuch as six years passed as captain and lieutenant-colonel in the Guards qualified him for that rank in the same manner that duty as a major or lieutenant-colonel of a battalion did in the Line. It was proposed by the Commission of 1854 that this system should be changed, and that, for the future, what are termed the mounted officers of the Guards, namely, the two acting majors of each battalion, should, after three years' service, become full colonels, thereby putting the majors of the Guards on the same footing as lieutenant-colonels commanding battalions of the Line. As, however, previous to 1854, every captain and lieutenant-colonel was rising to become a colonel by seniority, irrespective of service, the privilege of the Guards in this respect was so much curtailed as to be comparatively valueless. In order, however, to guard the vested interests of the then existing captains and lieutenant-colonels it was recommended that they should be allowed to acquire the rank of colonel in six years irrespective of service.

The case of these officers has already been considered by us when treating of the lieutenant-colonels dating prior to June 1854, as a body, and the antedated brevet which we have recommended will cover their case as it will that of the lieutenant-colonels of the Line of the same seniority. But it is alleged that the practical working of the Warrant of 1854 has retarded the promotion of the Guards to so great a degree that they gain their steps more slowly than do officers of the Line. We have, therefore, carefully considered the claim which has been urged on behalf of the officers of the Guards to have some change made in the provisions of the Warrant of 1854, in order to place them on a par with the Line in respect to the time at which they may expect to attain the rank of colonel. It appears from papers that have been laid before us that the promotion of officers of the Guards to the rank of colonel and of major-general, which was formerly

much more rapid than that of officers of the Line, has, since the Warrant of 1854, been slower, and that (reckoning from their entrance into the service), the former, upon the average, have been two years longer than the latter in attaining the rank of colonel. But on the other hand, we do not think that the Warrant has been long enough in force to afford an opportunity of fairly judging of its operation, and we also think that the comparative slowness of promotion in the Guards is, in part at least, attributable to circumstances advantageous to the officers of these regiments.

The first duty, however, of the military authorities must be to secure the efficiency of the army, and it is most important that the corps which, from its completeness and organization, as well as from its constant presence in England, must form the nucleus and constitute a considerable portion of any defensive army suddenly required, should be maintained, as regards the age and vigour of its officers, as in every other respect, as efficient as any other part of her Majesty's army; and if experience shall show that this inequality in the promotion of the Guards and Line is permanent or increasing, and that in that respect the intentions of the Commission of 1854 have not been fulfilled, the military authorities in that case would in our opinion be justified in taking such measures as may remove that inequality without sacrificing the principle of exacting a qualifying service in one rank before attaining another. Before we pass from the subject of the period and nature of the service which shall qualify a lieutenant-colonel for promotion to a colonelcy, we wish to record the strong opinion which we entertain that such claim to promotion must in any case be considered subject to the approval of the Commander-in-Chief of the manner in which the officer has hitherto commanded his regiment, or discharged the duties of the appointment in virtue of which he has obtained his qualification; and we hold it to be the duty of the Commander-in-Chief to refuse such promotion to any officer who has shown himself to be morally or physically unfit. A suggestion has been made to shorten from six to five years the period of service as a field officer, without which unattached pay cannot be obtained by a major-general, on the ground that the latter agrees with that required of a lieutenant-colonel to obtain the rank of colonel. This alteration we cannot recommend. This rule is an old one to which the officers of the army have been long habituated, and there is no contradiction involved in the difference between the number of years served as lieutenant-colonel, in order to qualify for the rank of colonel, and that required as a field officer to qualify for major-general's pay. A lieutenant-colonel who serves five years in that rank will almost invariably have previously served at least one year as major. The proposed change would also probably give rise to claims on the part of asterisked general officers who may have served five years but not six as field officers, to be brought on to the fixed establishment of 260, to the exclusion of the now senior colonels who stand next in succession.

It has also been proposed that the rank of lieutenant-colonel should be altogether abolished. We do not see sufficient reasons to warrant so great an innovation, while we see much practical inconvenience which would necessarily arise from it. If the rank of lieutenant-colonel were abolished it would be necessary to frame new regulations, or the provisions of the Warrant of 1854, giving prospectively an advantage to service over non-service, would fall to the ground, and all officers would alike and together reach the rank of major-general, whether fitted for it by responsible

command as a lieutenant-colonel or colonel, or whether unfitted by a long retirement from all military duty and service. Difficult questions would also arise as to whether purchase, which does not now exist in the rank of colonel, should be for the first time introduced into it, or whether, on the other hand, majors should be selected by the military authorities for the command of regiments. Neither do we see any reason for the creation of a new permanent rank of brigadier-general, with an increased rate of half pay. By long custom colonels have been employed in command of brigades, and have afterwards reverted to their former rank and half pay, an arrangement very convenient for the public service, advantageous to colonels, who have the opportunity of showing what capacity they may have for higher commands, while they revert to their original position without discredit to themselves or cost to the public if it should not be for the public interest further to employ them. Some questions rather of detail than of principle have been raised as to the staff or other employments which should, after five years, render a colonel eligible for promotion to the rank of supernumerary major-general, or give to a lieutenant-colonel the rank of colonel. It must be recollected that the deputy adjutant-general and the deputy quartermaster-general at the Horse Guards are subordinate officers acting under the direction of their superiors, and the situations of adjutant-general and quartermaster-general with the Queen's troops in India and of deputy adjutant-general and deputy quartermaster-general in Ireland, though of more importance, the officers filling them being heads of departments, yet are not tenable by major-generals, a fact which appears to us to dispose of the claim. The disadvantage, too, of which they complain, so far as the delay in their promotion to be major-generals is concerned, will have been removed by the major-generals promoted out of their turn being placed on a supernumerary list, and not on the fixed establishment, till their seniority as colonels would have brought them there.

Before concluding our Report we think it our duty to state that it appears from a return, that of the 60,000*l.* voted annually for full-pay retirements about 9,000*l.* remains undisposed of. The grant of full-pay retirement to a colonel or lieutenant-colonel amounts to 17*s.* a day, but this sum by no means represents what the colonel on full pay receives. He has, besides, 3*s.* a day command money, allowance for servants, forage for horses, besides lodging, &c. A civil servant of the Crown receives the whole of his pay as salary. That salary is calculated to cover everything, and is not supplemented by any extra allowances. When he retires, therefore, on full pay, he continues to receive all that he ever got; whereas the colonel, though nominally retiring on full pay, is at once deprived of a third or more of his emoluments. That retirement on such terms does not act as a sufficient inducement to officers to retire is proved by the fact that nearly one-sixth of the whole amount voted remains unappropriated, owing to the absence of candidates to receive it. Some of the allowances which we have enumerated as attaching to the command of a battalion are special allowances, with a view to defray expenditure forced on the officer by the nature of his duty, but some are virtually a portion of his full pay. Looking therefore to this retirement as a useful adjunct to other measures for relieving the colonel and lieutenant-colonel's list, we are of opinion that some further inducement should be held out; and we recommend that in the case of all officers hereafter accepting such retirement, the amount of full-pay be increased from 17*s.* to 20*s.* per diem;

eventually, however, if this proposal be adopted, the number of officers who can share in the annual grant of 60,000*l.* will be considerably reduced; and we recommend it to the joint consideration of the military authorities and the Treasury, whether, when these circumstances shall arise a corresponding addition should not be made to the grant. Such augmentation will become the more more necessary should the Government adopt any plan of compulsory retirement. The Royal Commission on Sale and Purchase in the Army, in their Report dated 1857, proposed that:—With a view to give to a greater number of officers the experience gained by the command of a regiment, and to accelerate promotion to the rank of colonel, no officer should be allowed to retain the command of his regiment for more than ten years; a regulation which no doubt would be effective for its purpose, though it could scarcely be made applicable to existing commanders of regiments. In some cases regiments remain for too long a period under the command of the same officer, and officers may also occasionally be found in command of regiments, whose activity and efficiency have been seriously impaired by age and service; the proposed fixed limit to the duration of the command would provide for the former case, but not for the latter; as a comparatively young officer who had had rapid promotion in the lower ranks, might find himself approaching to the end of his command, when an older man had just obtained his.

We apprehend that the Commander-in-Chief has the power to remove from the command of his regiment any officer who from age or other causes is no longer fit to hold it; but practically it has been felt to be so invidious that, except in cases which might almost be brought within the cognizance of a military court, it has not been exercised. A limit of age, which would partly meet this difficulty, however, is not without its disadvantages. It would sometimes dismiss from active service an officer combining long experience with great constitutional vigour, while it might leave in command a man prematurely old, and less fit either by experience or vigour to retain it. To both forms of compulsory retirement it might also be objected that, as the termination of his command approached, the interest of the colonel in his regiment, and with it his zeal and exertion, will decline, by which the discipline of the regiment will be affected. We feel that this is a mixed question of discipline and promotion, and it is therefore not without hesitation that we allude to it. It appears to us, however, that a combination of the compulsory principle as to age with a discretionary power exercised by the Commander-in-Chief would best secure the object which the military authorities have in view, namely, the removal of the inefficient and the retention of the efficient officer, and that the hands of the Commander-in-Chief would be strengthened by its being laid down as a rule that a colonel in command of a regiment should retire on attaining sixty years of age, unless it should be reported to the Commander-in-Chief by the general officer inspecting the regiment that its condition and discipline were such as to prove the efficiency of its commanding officer, and that he appeared still fully equal to perform his duties both at home and abroad. We accordingly recommend that no colonel should be allowed to retain the command of a regiment after sixty years of age without a report to the Commander-in-Chief to this effect. It is obvious, however, that it would be unjust to dismiss to half pay an officer who had zealously served his country, but who on account of age or infirmity alone is compelled to give up his command, and such officers should therefore, under such circumstances, be

allowed to retire from their regiment on full pay, retaining their prospect of becoming general officers.

We have now gone through the points to which our attention was directed. In so doing, we have endeavoured to devise measures by which relief might be given to those officers whose interests appear to us to have been injuriously affected by the too sudden introduction into the system of promotion of the changes proposed by the Commission of 1854. But in attempting to effect this we have had, after the lapse of four years, to deal with conflicting interests; namely, those which date from a period antecedent to the year 1854, and those which have subsequently been created by the operation of the Warrant itself. In a choice of difficulties we have endeavoured, as between officers possessing these claims, to show all the consideration in our power to both, and to recommend such an award as shall be almost consonant with justice and policy. We are confident that the colonels promoted under the new rule since 1854 have themselves felt sympathy for their comrades whose professional prospects were deteriorated by their elevation, and will cheerfully acquiesce in the relief afforded them, even though they themselves should lose some of the advantages which they had thus acquired. When great changes are necessary for the advantage of the public service, we hold it to be expedient, because just, to give to individual interests and claims every consideration which is compatible with the attainment of the public objects in view. But while dealing exceptionally with the officers whom we wish to guard against the consequences of any retrospective action of a new rule, we desire to express our adhesion to the principle which animated the recommendations of the Commission of 1854. By the measures which they proposed seniority of service has a priority and an advantage over seniority of years alone; experience in one rank is required as a preliminary to promotion to another; distinguished conduct in the field can be rewarded by professional advancement; the ability and capacity of officers for command can be tested, and a wide field is opened to the Crown from which to select officers for responsible employment before age shall have dimmed their faculties or deprived them of their activity and vigour—We therefore humbly express our hope that the measures which we recommend, should it be Your Majesty's pleasure to adopt them, may tend to mitigate the hardship which the introduction of changes, however useful in themselves, has inflicted on individuals, and thus reconcile their temporary interests with the permanent interests of the public service, while at the same time they may contribute to place the professional advancement of the army on a sound and defensible basis, which, by rewarding service and stimulating exertion, may maintain to the utmost the efficiency of Your Majesty's forces.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

SERIES B.—DIPLOMACY AND WAR.

21° & 22° VICTORIÆ.

UNITED KINGDOM.

MILITIA ACT CONTINUANCE.

CAP. IV.—*An Act to continue an Act of the last Session to authorize the embodying of the Militia.* (25th March, 1858.)

MUTINY.

CAP. IX.—*An Act for punishing Mutiny and Desertion, and for the better Payment of the Army and their Quarters.* (26th March, 1858.)

MARINE MUTINY.

CAP. VII.—*An Act for the Regulation of Her Majesty's Royal Marine Forces while on Shore.* (26th March, 1858.)

PORTENDIC AND ALBRED A CONVENTION.

CAP. XXXV.—*An Act to remove Doubts as to the Operation of a Convention between Her Majesty and the Emperor of the French relative to Portendic and Albreda.* (12th July, 1858.)

Doubts being entertained whether certain of the provisions of the said convention are consistent with certain provisions concerning the coasting trade of the British Possessions according to 16th & 17th Vict., c. 107, it was enacted that the above recited convention is confirmed and to be deemed in full force, anything in the said Act or any other Act notwithstanding.

ARMY SERVICE.

CAP. LV.—*An Act to revise and continue an Act amending the Act for limiting the Time of Service in the Army.* (23rd July, 1858.)

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MILITIA (SERVICE ABROAD) ACT CONTINUANCE.

CAP. LXXXV.—*An Act to continue an Act to enable Her Majesty to accept the Services of the Militia out of the United Kingdom.* (2nd August, 1858.)

MILITIA ACT CONTINUANCE.

CAP. LXXXVI.—*An Act further to continue an Act to authorize the Embodiment of the Militia.* (2nd August, 1858.)

MILITIA BALLOTS SUSPENSION.

CAP. XXXIX.—*An Act to suspend the making of Lists and the Ballots for the Militia of the United Kingdom.* (23rd July, 1858.)

MILITIA PAY.

CAP. LXXXII.—*An Act to defray the Charge of the Pay, Clothing, and contingent and other Expenses of the disembodied Militia in Great Britain and Ireland; to grant Allowances in certain Cases to Subaltern Officers, Adjutants, Paymasters, Quartermasters, Surgeons, Assistant-Surgeons, and Surgeons' Mates of the Militia; and to authorize the Employment of the Non-commissioned Officers.* (2nd August, 1858.)

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

SERIES C.—ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS AND EDUCATION.

21° & 22° VICTORIÆ.

UNITED KINGDOM.

ART-UNIONS INDEMNITY.

CAP. CII.—*An Act to Indemnify certain Persons who have formed a Voluntary Association for the Disposal of Works of Utility and Ornament, by Chance or otherwise, as Prizes.* (2nd August, 1848.)

ENGLAND.

UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGE ESTATES.

CAP. XLIV.—*An Act to give to the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and Durham, and the Colleges in those Universities, and to the Colleges of Saint Mary of Winchester, near Winchester, and of King Henry the Sixth, at Eton, power to sell, enfranchise, and exchange Lands, under certain conditions, and also to grant Leases for agricultural, building, and mining purposes, and to deal with the interest of their lessees, under proper reservations and restrictions.* (23rd July, 1858.)

ECCLESIASTICAL CORPORATIONS LEASING.

CAP. LVII.—*An Act to amend the Act of the 5th and 6th years of her present Majesty, for enabling Ecclesiastical Corporations, aggregate and sole, to grant Leases for long terms of years.* (24th July, 1858.)

SERIES C.

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STANHOPE AND WOLSEINGHAM RECTORIES.

CAP. LVIII.—*An Act for the future Appropriation of the Tithes and Tenth of Lead Ores in the Parishes of Stanhope and Wolsingham, in the county of Durham, belonging to the respective Rectors thereof, subject to the existing incumbencies, and for making other provisions for the Endowment of the said Rectories in lieu thereof, and for other purposes connected therewith.* (23rd July, 1858.)

SCOTLAND.

UNIVERSITIES.

CAP. LXXXIII.—*An Act to make Provision for the better Government and Discipline of the Universities of Scotland, and Improving and Regulating the Course of Studies therein, and for the Union of the two Universities and Colleges of Aberdeen.* (2nd August, 1858.)

King's College and Marischal College, Aberdeen, were united under the title of "University of Aberdeen." The Chancellor of each of the Universities of St. Andrew's, Glasgow, Aberdeen, and Edinburgh, to be elected for life by the General Council hereinafter mentioned; the Chancellor in each University having power to appoint a Vice-Chancellor, who may, in the absence of the Chancellor, discharge his office in so far as regards conferring degrees, but in no other respect. In each University there shall be constituted a University Court, of which the Rector is to be the ordinary President, with a deliberative and a casting vote. The *Senatus Academicus* of each of the said Universities to consist of the Principal and whole Professors in each University; and it shall possess and exercise all the powers belonging to a *Senatus Academicus*, and superintend and regulate the teaching and discipline of the University, and administer its property and revenues, subject to the control of the University Court, one-third of the Senators to be a quorum, and the Principal to be the Ordinary President with a deliberative and a casting vote, the Principal being bound to undertake and perform such duties of teaching and lecturing as may be assigned to him by the University Court. There shall be in each University a General Council, consisting of the Chancellor, of the Members of the University Court, of the Professors, of all Masters of Arts of the University, of all Doctors of Medicine of the University who shall have, as Matriculated Students, given regular attendance on classes in any of the Universities during four complete sessions, and also of all persons who, as Matriculated Students, have given regular attendance on the course of study in the University for four complete sessions. No person to be a member of the General Council until he has attained the age of twenty-one years complete, and has his name

registered in a book, and paid a fee for that purpose. No person to be a member of the General Council while he is a student enrolled in any class of the University. The University Court to consist of the Rector, the Principal, four Assessors (to be nominated by the Chancellor, the Rector, the General Council, and the *Senatus Academicus* respectively). The Rector and the Assessor nominated by him to continue in office for three years, and the other Assessors for four years. The University Courts to have the power to review all the decisions of the *Senatus Academicus*, and to be a Court of Appeal from the *Senatus*; to effect improvements in the internal arrangements of the University, to require due attention on the part of the Professors to regulations and to the mode of teaching; to fix and regulate the fees; upon sufficient cause shown, and after due investigation, to censure a Principal or Professor, or to suspend him from his office and from the emoluments thereof for any period not exceeding one year, and to inquire into and control the administration by the *Senatus Academicus*, or Principal and Professors, of the revenue and expenditure, and all pecuniary concerns of the University. The right of nomination to any Professorship to be vested in University Courts. The right of nomination to the office of Principal and to all Professorships in the University of Edinburgh to vest in seven Curators, four to be nominated by the Town Council and three by the University Court. A permanent Commission is appointed by the Act, with power to cite and examine the office-bearers in the Universities, to revise the foundation, &c., and to alter trust; to regulate the powers of office-bearers, to regulate elections of University-officers, to regulate course of study, &c., to found Professorships, to provide for the due administration of the revenues and endowments, &c., and to report on the expediency of founding a National University for Scotland. On the granting a Charter for such a University, the Scottish Universities may surrender the power of granting degrees. With respect to the University of Aberdeen, the Commissioners received powers to determine the number of Professors, and regulate the course of study, to abolish offices rendered unnecessary by the union of the two Universities and Colleges, to accept resignations, to determine right of patronage, to make arrangements as to building of United Colleges, to make all necessary rules, &c. During the subsistence and exercise of the powers of the Commissioners, the powers conferred on the University Courts to be exercised in subordination to the powers of the Commissioners. The Treasury may make grants for providing retiring allowances to Principal and Professors, for providing additional teaching by means of Assistants to the Professors, for providing remuneration to the Examiners, for the endowment of new Professorships, and for providing full compensation to the present holders of Professorships, or other officers, for the loss of emoluments consequent on the abolition or conjunction of such Professorships.

IRELAND.

CHURCHES, &c.

CAP. LIX.—*An Act further to Amend the Law relating to the Creation and Endowment of Churches, Chapels, and Perpetual Curacies in Ireland.*
(23rd July, 1859.)

BANKRUPTS' CERTIFICATES.

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No. CXXXV.—BANKRUPTS' CERTIFICATES.

Return of the Number of Applications for Bankrupts' Certificates heard before each Commissioner during each of the last Five Years until the 5th day of July, 1858, showing the Number granted, distinguishing the Classes, the Number suspended, and the Number refused. (Mr. Beecroft.) 14th July, 1858. (52.)

COMMISSIONER'S COURT.	CERTIFICATES HEARD.					CERTIFICATES GRANTED.									
						First Class.					Second Class.				
	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.
Evans', London . . .	72	105	118	96	88	1	5	4	5	2	48	60	69	54	52
Fonblanque's, do. . .	55	93	104	96	105	9	3	7	6	6	39	56	54	53	49
Fane's, do.	84	148	147	108	141	22	44	33	30	32	26	46	64	37	72
Holroyd's, do. . . .	68	130	104	86	121	7	14	10	10	10	32	69	51	31	47
Golbourn's, do. . . .	75	101	115	93	118	10	10	8	8	11	26	27	39	34	41
Balgui's, Birmingham	77	161	165	140	169	12	8	15	15	12	39	89	98	67	101
Hill's, Bristol. . . .	37	67	58	76	53	14	8	19	12	7	14	42	26	47	24
Bere's, Exeter	30	51	55	27	33	7	6	15	11	5	13	34	23	12	15
West's, Leeds	45	77	64	77	51	10	21	9	7	2	18	38	24	34	19
Ayrton's, do.	32	53	39	66	55	4	2	1	5	1	5	11	2	2	9
Stevenson's, Liverpool	16	35	29	32	57	6	15	13	10	20	2	3	9	13	22
Perry, do.	20	30	34	31	51	4	3	5	4	6	3	7	17	13	17
Skirrow, Manchester .	26	67	70	36	66	4	12	3	3	14	9	18	27	9	16
Jemmett	47	71	38	43	41	17	20	14	7	12	23	26	11	15	14
Ellison, Newcastle . .	28	16	30	30	55	1	none	none	none	1	8	5	11	4	9
Total	712	1,205	1,170	1,037	1,204	118	171	156	133	141	305	531	525	425	507

COMMISSIONER'S COURT.	CERTIFICATES GRANTED.					CERTIFICATES SUSPENDED.					CERTIFICATES REFUSED.				
	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.
Evans'	2	6	5	3	2	20	30	34	30	26	—	1	2	2	4
Fonblanque's	17	34	43	36	47	25	32	24	20	33	2	14	7	9	8
Fane's	31	43	40	30	25	24	14	7	9	8	—	1	3	2	4
Holroyd's	4	9	12	12	18	24	25	26	28	39	1	1	1	2	5
Golbourn's	12	10	11	9	6	21	52	56	40	58	1	—	—	1	1
Balgui's	26	60	51	58	56	18	34	24	22	13	—	4	1	—	—
Hill's	8	13	11	13	20	9	13	9	17	23	1	4	1	4	2
Bere's	8	9	14	3	11	9	17	17	7	6	2	2	3	1	2
West's	9	8	23	30	17	8	10	6	6	13	—	—	2	—	—
Ayrton's	19	28	16	38	26	1	8	17	21	12	3	4	3	—	7
Stevenson's	—	—	—	—	—	7	16	6	9	12	1	1	1	—	3
Perry's	4	3	6	6	14	7	13	5	6	11	2	2	1	2	3
Skirrow's	5	22	22	11	14	8	14	18	12	22	—	1	—	1	—
Jemmett's	7	23	13	18	15	5	6	7	16	11	—	2	—	3	—
Ellison's	19	11	19	26	44	14	13	17	18	35	—	—	—	—	—
Total	171	281	286	293	315	178	297	273	261	322	13	37	25	27	39

No. CXXXVL.—BANKRUPTCY COMMISSIONERS.

Return of the number of days on which the Commissioners of the Court of Bankruptcy, acting in London and in the Country, have sat in their Courts during the Year from the 1st January to the 31st December, 1857, and of the average Number of Hours of each Day's Sitting, &c. (The Lord Brougham and Vaux.) 15th February, 1858. (594.)

THE five London commissioners sat on an average 127 days in 1857, and $4\frac{1}{4}$ hours per day. The number of adjudications made by each of them, averaged in 1852, 95; in 1853, 81; in 1854, 82; in 1855, 132; in 1856, 128; in 1857, 112; and in 1858, 127. Two of the commissioners resided under 7 miles distant from the court; one under 5 miles, and two under 4 miles. Of the official assignees, one resided 50 miles distant from the court, one 23 miles, one 13 miles, one under 8 miles, four under 4 miles, and two under 3 miles.

In Birmingham the commissioners sat 29 days, 3 hours per day. The number of adjudications in 1851-52 was 49; 1852-53, 48; in 1853-54, 43; in 1854-55, 68; in 1855-56, 100; in 1856-57, 89; and in 1857-58, 93. One commissioner resided 48 miles from the court, one 10 miles, and two 1 mile.

In Nottingham the court sat 57 days, and $3\frac{1}{4}$ hours per day. The number of adjudications in 1851-52 was 56; in 1852-53, 52; in 1853-54, 46; in 1854-55, 80; in 1855-56, 108; in 1856-57, 93; and in 1857-58, 133.

In Bristol the commissioner presided in his court 142 days, 3 hours per day. The number of adjudications from 11th January, 1851, to 11th January, 1858, was 478, or an average of 68.

In Exeter the commissioner sat in his court, either at Exeter or at Plymouth, 90 times. The number of adjudications from 1851 to 1858 was 296, or an average of 44 per year.

At Leeds the commissioner sat 191 days, and $4\frac{1}{4}$ hours a day. The number of adjudications was 404, and an average of 58. Mr. Commissioner Ayrton sat 195 days, 4 hours a day. The number of adjudications was 386, or an average of 55 per year.

At Newcastle, Mr. Commissioner Stevenson sat 176 days, and Mr. Commissioner Perry 172 days. The number of adjudications was 591, or an average of 84 per year.

At Manchester, Mr. Commissioner Skerrow sat 139 days, 3 to 4 hours daily. The number of adjudications was 333, or an average of 47 per annum. Mr. Commissioner sat 128 days, 3 hours per day. The number of adjudications was 366, or an average of 52 per day.

At Newcastle the commissioner sat 170 days, 4 hours per day. The number of adjudications was 235, or an average of 37 per year.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

SERIES E.—LAW, JUSTICE, AND CRIME.

21° & 22° VICTORIÆ.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

LAW OF FALSE PRETENCES.

CAP. XLVII.—*An Act to amend the Law of False Pretences.*
(23rd July, 1857.)

Any person obtaining by any false pretences the signature of any other person to any bill of exchange, promissory note, or any valuable security, with intent to cheat or defraud, to be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and liable to be sentenced to penal servitude for the term of four years, or to suffer other punishment by fine or such imprisonment, or by both, as the Court shall award.

ADMINISTRATION OF OATHS.

CAP. XLVIII.—*An Act to enable the Committees of both Houses of Parliament to administer Oaths to Witnesses on certain Cases.* (23rd July, 1858.)

Any Select Committee of the House of Commons or of the House of Lords, to which any private bill has been referred by the House, may examine witnesses upon oath upon matters relating to such bills; and for that purpose may administer an oath to any such witness; and any person so examined wilfully giving false evidence to be liable to the penalties of perjury.

CONFIRMATION OF EXECUTORS.

CAP. LVI.—*An Act to amend the Law relating to the Confirmation of Executors in Scotland, and to extend over all parts of the United Kingdom the effects of such Confirmation and of Grants of Probate and Administration.* (23rd July, 1858.)

The practice of raising edicts of executry before the Commissary Courts in Scotland for the decerniture of executors to deceased persons to cease; and

every person desirous of being decerned executor shall present a petition for the appointment to the commissary of the county where the deceased died domiciled. On the expiration of nine days after the commissary clerk shall have certified the intimation and publication of the petition, the same may be called in court and the executor decerned. Inventories of personal estates of deceased persons, and relative testamentary writing, may be recorded. When any confirmation of the executor of a person died domiciled in Scotland, which includes besides the personal estate situate in Scotland, also personal estate situate in England, is produced in the principal Court of Probate in England, or in the Court of Probate in Dublin, the same is to have the force and effect of probate or administration. And when any probate or letters of administration granted by the Court of Probate in England to the executor or administrator of a person died domiciled in England, or by the Court of Probate in Ireland to the executor of a person died domiciled in Ireland, is produced in the Commissary Court of the county of Edinburgh, the probate being duly stamped, the same to be of like force and effect, and have the same operation in Scotland. For securing the stamp duties, the probates to be decerned is granted for all the property in the United Kingdom.

ENGLAND.

FRANCHISE PRISONS.

CAP. XXII.—*An Act to abolish Franchise Prisons.* (14th June, 1858.)

No person to be confined in Swansea debtors' prisons for the Liberty of Gower, Newark Liberty Prison for debtors, Halifax Home Gaol for the Manor of Wakefield, Gaol for the Forest and Forest Liberty of Knaresborough, belonging to the Duchy of Lancaster, Gaol for the Borough and Township of Knaresborough, belonging to the Duchy of Lancaster, Sheffield Debtors' Gaol for the Liberty of Hallamshire and Hexham Debtors' Prisons. All persons who should be confined in such prisons, to be confined in the common gaol of the county or riding in which such persons respectively may be arrested, and prisoners in abolished prisons to be removed to county gaols.

CHANCERY AMENDMENT.

CAP. XXVII.—*An Act to amend the Course of Procedure in the High Court of Chancery, the Court of Chancery of Ireland, and the Court of Chancery in the County Palatine of Lancaster.* (28th June, 1858.)

In all cases in which the Court of Chancery has jurisdiction to entertain an application for an injunction against a breach of any covenant, or against the commission or continuance of any wrongful act, or for the specific performance of any covenant or contract, the Court may award damages to the party injured, either in addition to or in substitution for such injunction

or specific performance. The amount of such damages in any case may be assessed by a special or common jury before the Court itself. Any question of facts, and any question as to the amount of damages, to be tried by a jury, to be reduced into writing. The Court of Chancery may cause the amount of such damages, or any questions of fact to be tried before the Court itself without a jury. The Court of Chancery may, in any case in which it shall think fit so to do, cause the amount of such damages to be assessed by a jury before any Judge of one of the superior Courts of common law at Nisi Prius, or before the Sheriff of any county or city. When parties are competent to make admissions, any party may call on any other party by notice to admit any document. The power conferred by this Act to extend to the Court of Chancery in Ireland, and also to the Court of Chancery of County Palatine of Lancaster.

DURHAM COUNTY PALATINE JURISDICTION.

CAP. XLV.—*An Act to amend the Provisions of an Act of the 6th Year of King William IV., for separating the Palatine Jurisdiction of the County Palatine of Durham from the Bishopric of Durham; and to make further Provision with respect to the Jura Regalia of the said County.* (23rd July, 1858.)

The interest of the bishopric of Durham in the foreshores of that county to be vested in her Majesty. All leases granted by the Bishops of Durham confirmed, but the rents received to be apportioned. The rents and proceeds from the foreshores of Durham to be divided equally between the Crown and the Ecclesiastical Commissioners. All forfeitures of lands or goods for treason or otherwise, and all mines of gold and silver, treasure trove, and all jura regalia to be vested in her Majesty, in right of her crown.

COUNTY COURTS DISTRICTS.

CAP. LXXIV.—*An Act for the rearrangement of the Districts of the County Courts among the Judges thereof.* (2nd August, 1858.)

The Lord Chancellor may redistribute the business of the Courts among the judges thereof. Two persons may be appointed judges of one or more districts. The judges of the County Courts not to exceed sixty in number.

STIPENDIARY MAGISTRATES.

CAP. LXXIII.—*An Act to amend the Law concerning the Powers of Stipendiary Magistrates and Justices of the Peace in certain Cases.* (2nd August, 1858.)

A stipendiary magistrate may do alone all acts authorized to be done by two Justices. The authority and jurisdiction so given to a stipendiary magistrate to extend and apply to acts required to be done at petty sessions, and

other cases, except the jurisdiction of quarter sessions and special sessions. The same not to extend to metropolitan police magistrates. The magistrates acting for places in the metropolitan police district, within which no police court is established, may commit offenders, under the 2 & 3 Vict., c. 71, s. 24, to any gaols in and for the county, liberty or place in which offence shall have been committed. The stipendiary magistrate may appoint a deputy, with approval of the Secretary of State.

PROBATE AND LETTERS OF ADMINISTRATION ACT AMENDMENT.

CAP. XCV.—*An Act to amend the Act of the 20th and 21st Victoria, cap. 77.*
(2nd August, 1858.)

The Judge of the High Court of Admiralty and the Judge of the Court of Probate may sit for each other, both in open court and in chambers. The Judge of the Court of Probate may sit in chamber for the despatch of such business as can with advantage to the suitors be heard in chambers. The Judge so sitting in chambers exercising the same power as if sitting in open court. When the personalty of any testator is under 200*l.*, and the deceased was not seised or entitled beneficially to any real estate of the value of 300*l.* or upwards, the judge of the county courts to have the contentious jurisdiction and authority of the Court of Probate in respect of questions as to the grant or revocation of probate of the will or letters of administration. All non-contentious business pending in any ecclesiastical court at the time when the "Court of Probate Act" came into operation, to be deemed to have been transferred to the Court of Probate. Bonds given to any archbishops, bishops, &c., in respect of grants of letters of administration, to remain in force. Whenever an executor appointed on a will survives the testator, but dies without having taken probate, or does not appear when cited to take probate, the right of such person in respect of the executorship is to cease. Between the death of the person deceased and the grant of probate, the property to vest in the Judge Ordinary. All second and subsequent grants to be made where the original will is registered or the original letters of administration has been deposited. The Court of Probate may require security from a receiver of real estate. Administration *pendente lite* may be granted in case of appeals. Letters of administration granted in Ireland are not to be resealed in England, except when sufficient bond is given. Any person forging any seal or signature to any affidavit, declaration, or affirmation used in the Court of Probate, or tendering in evidence any such document with a false or counterfeit seal or signature thereto, knowing the same to be false or counterfeit, to be guilty of felony. Any person giving false evidence before a surrogate having authority to administer oaths to be guilty of perjury. Authority was also given to the Commissioners of the Treasury to grant superannuation allowances to officers in the court, &c.

DIVORCE AND MATRIMONIAL CAUSES ACT AMENDMENT.

CAP. CVIII.—*An Act to amend the Act of the 20th and 21st Victoria cap. 85. (2nd August, 1858.)*

The Judge Ordinary for the Court for Divorce and Matrimonial Causes may sit in chambers, and when so sitting in chambers to exercise the same power and jurisdiction as if sitting in open court. Any person wheresoever resident or domiciled, may present a petition to the Court for Divorce and Matrimonial Causes, praying that his or her marriage may be dissolved. Every wife deserted by her husband, wheresoever resident in England, may at any time after such desertion apply to the Judge Ordinary for an order to protect any money or property in England she may have acquired or may acquire by her own lawful industry, and any property she may have become possessed of, or may become possessed of after such desertion, against her husband and his creditors and any person claiming under him. The provisions respecting the property of a wife who has obtained a judicial separation or an order for protection, to be deemed to extend to property to which such wife has or may become entitled as executrix, administratrix, or trustees, since the sentence of separation or the commencement of the desertion. In every case in which a wife has obtained an order to protect her earnings or property, or a decree for judicial separation, such order or decree, until reversed or discharged, to be deemed valid and effectual, and no discharge or reversal of such order or decree to prejudice or affect any rights or remedies which any person may have in respect of any debts of the wife incurred or done. Every order for protection, &c., to state the time at which the desertion commenced. Either party dissatisfied with the sentence in cases of nullity of marriage may appeal to the House of Lords. The Judge Ordinary, in full court, may grant rule nisi for new trial. The authority given by the 20th and 21st Vict., cap. 85, to apply to judge of assize for restitution of conjugal rights, is withdrawn.

SCOTLAND.

POLICE ACT AMENDMENT.

CAP. LXV.—*An Act to amend an Act of the last Sessions to render more effectual the Police in Counties and Burghs in Scotland. (2nd August, 1858.)*

TITLES TO LAND.

CAP. LXXVI.—*An Act to simplify the Forms and diminish the Expense of completing Titles to Land in Scotland. (2nd August, 1858.)*

Instruments of sasine to be no longer necessary, but conveyance may be recorded instead. When a conveyance of land is contained in a deed granted for other purposes, such as a marriage contract, deed of trust, &c.,

it is not necessary to record the whole of such deed, but only a notarial instrument setting forth the nature of such deed, and containing the parts of the same by which particular lands are conveyed. Instruments of resignation and remanentiam to be no longer necessary. When a party shall have granted a general conveyance of his lands, the disponent or any other party who shall have acquired right to such conveyance may record a notarial instrument, and have the same duly recorded in the appropriate register of sasines. Any party in right of an unrecorded conveyance may assign the conveyance, and the assignation may be recorded in the register of sasines. When a judicial factor or judicial manager shall apply by petition for authority to complete a title to any lands forming part of the estate under his management, the warrant granted for completing such title shall specify the land to which title is to be completed. The warrant so granted is to have the same operation and effect as a disposition of such lands in favour of such judicial factor or manager. So a trustee of a sequestered estate, or liquidator, official or voluntary, appointed for the purpose of winding up a joint-stock company, may expedite a notarial instrument setting forth the Act, or warrant of confirmation, or the appointment of such liquidator, and specifying the lands belonging to the bankrupt or company, and on such notarial instrument being recorded, such trustee or liquidator is to be held in all respects in the same position as if the bankrupt or company had granted a conveyance of the lands in favour of such trustee or liquidator.

IRELAND.

PEACE PRESERVATION ACT CONTINUANCE.

CAP. XXVIII.—*An Act to continue the Peace Preservation (Ireland) Act, 1856. (28th June, 1858.)*

NISI PRIUS COURT, &c.

CAP. LII.—*An Act to appoint a Clerk of Nisi Prius for the Consolidated Nisi Prius Court in Ireland, and to make Provision for the Appointment of Tipstaffs in the Superior Courts of Common Law and Equity in Ireland. (23rd July, 1858.)*

SALE AND TRANSFER OF LAND.

CAP. LXXII.—*An Act to facilitate the Sale and Transfer of Land in Ireland. (2nd August, 1858.)*

A court was constituted called "The Landed Estates Court," sitting at Dublin, and composed of three judges, one registrar, one taxing officer, one accountant, one examiner for each judge, and clerks: the salary of the

first judge to be 3,000*l.*, and of the other two 2,500*l.* a year each. Barristers and solicitors to enjoy the like privilege of practising before the court. All matters pending before the Incumbered Estates Court were transferred to the new court, and all cash and stock standing to the credit of the Commissioners were transferred to the control of the new court. The Landed Estates Court to be a court of record, and to have all the powers and jurisdiction of a court of equity in Ireland for the investigation of title, and for ascertaining and allowing incumbrances and charges, and the amounts due thereon, and settling the priority of such charges and incumbrances respectively, and the rights of owners and others. The court to have power also, in relation to any matter or question before them, to direct issues of fact to be tried by a jury, and to summon a jury. The proceedings in each matter to be taken before a single judge, but he may call to his aid one or both of the other judges of the court. Every order or decision of the judge to be subject to a direct appeal to the Court of Appeal in Chancery in Ireland. And any decision of the Court of Appeal in Chancery from the Landed Estate Court, Ireland, to be subject to an appeal in the House of Lords. The owner of incumbered estate or of unincumbered estate, or any incumbrancer may apply for the sale of the estate. The court to exercise the jurisdiction of Chancery for the sale of settled estates. Whenever a contract for the sale of any estate is made, the vendor or vendee may apply for an investigation of title, and a conveyance with indefeasible title, the court having power to enforce specific performance of such contracts. When any order or decree for a sale of any estate of land is pronounced by the Court of Chancery, the sale is to be made by the Landed Estates Court, Ireland. So where the sale is ordered in bankruptcy or insolvency. When sales are effected by the court of any land decreed to be sold by the Court of Chancery or Bankruptcy, the proceed is to be paid into the Bank of Ireland to the credit of the accountant-general. The owner of an estate may obtain a declaration of indefeasible title from the court, and the declaration is conclusive and indefeasible from the date of signing thereof by the judge, the owner having power to have such declaration registered in the office. On application for a declaration of title, the court may order the publication thereof by advertisement or in any other manner. If upon application for a sale or conveyance to a vendee or declaration, it shall appear to the judge that a sale or conveyance of the land is found expedient, he shall direct notices to be given to such persons, hear the parties interested in the land, and determine whether under all circumstances it is expedient that a sale should be made, or conveyance executed, or a declaration of title made. If the sale is expedient, the judge is to ascertain the tenancies of the occupying tenants, and of any lessees, &c., and if necessary the sale may be made subject to the annual charge affecting the land, or to any apportioned part of such charge. The sale to be under the control of the court either by public auction or by private contract. The conveyance to the purchaser to pass an estate in fee simple, subject to

tenancies, but discharged from all estates and incumbrances. The court may order the delivery to the purchaser of all leases or counterparts of leases and agreements, and when the proceedings are likely to be protracted, the money paid into the bank may be invested in stock funds, the court having power to appoint, change, or remove trustees. The court may obtain the assistance of accountants, merchants, engineers, actuaries, or other scientific persons, the better to enable the court to determine on any matter at issue. On application for a sale of an undivided share, or after sale the court may, on application of the party interested, and giving notices and hearing parties, make an order for the partition of such land, or for the exchange of all or any part of such land for other land.

CIVIL BILLS, &C., ACT AMENDMENT.

CAP. LXXXVIII.—*An Act to amend an Act of the 14th and 15th Years of her present Majesty, to consolidate and amend the Laws relating to Civil Bills and the Courts of Quarter Sessions in Ireland, and to transfer to the Assistant Barristers certain Jurisdiction as to Insolvent Debtors.* (2nd August, 1858.)

CLERK OF PETTY SESSIONS.

CAP. CVIII.—*An Act to regulate the Office of Clerk of Petty Sessions in Ireland.* (2nd August, 1858.)

FOUR COURTS (DUBLIN) EXTENSION.

CAP. LXXXIV.—*An Act for enabling the Commissioners of Public Works in Ireland to acquire certain Lands and Houses for the Site of a new Court or Courts, and other Offices and Buildings required for the Public Service, in Extension of the Four Courts in the City of Dublin; and for other Purposes.* (2nd August, 1858.)

PREScription.

CAP. XLII.—*An Act for shortening the Time of Prescription in certain Cases in Ireland.* (23rd July, 1858.)

The provision of the 2 and 3 W. 4, c. 71, shall be extended to Ireland.

REFORMATORY SCHOOLS.

CAP. CIII.—*An Act to promote and regulate Reformatory Schools for Juvenile Offenders in Ireland.* (2nd August, 1858.)

Upon application from the managers of reformatory schools, the Chief Secretary of the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland may appoint a proper person to be inspector of reformatory schools in Ireland, and any institution reported to be useful and efficient for its purpose shall be held to be a

reformatory school. When a reformatory school is certified by the Lord Lieutenant, notice of the same shall be published in the *Dublin Gazette*. The grand jury of any county or the council of any borough, may, upon application, grant sums of money in aid of the maintenance of such offenders sentenced or detained in the reformatory schools. But no money to be granted to schools for the purpose, unless the same has been certified by the chief secretary. The grand juries or councils may contract with the managers for the reception of offenders from the county or borough. If any person whose age does not exceed 16 years is convicted, the judge or justice may, in addition to the sentence passed as a judgment, direct such offender to be sent, at the expiration of such sentence, to some reformatory school, there to be detained for a period not less than one year, and not exceeding five years. No offender, however, shall be sent to such school unless the sentence passed for his punishment shall be one of imprisonment for 15 days at the least. Such offenders shall only be sent to schools managed by persons of the same religious belief as that professed by their parents or guardians. The school to which the offender is committed need not be named in the sentence, but the court may make a supplemental order to that effect. The expense of conveyance to such reformatory school to be charged on the county, or city or town from which the offender was first removed. The governor of prisons having the custody of any juvenile offender who is ordered to the reformatory shall forward with such offender a duplicate or copy of the warrant of commitment. It shall be lawful to the Treasury to defray the cost of maintenance of any juvenile offender so detained in any reformatory school. Any person absconding or guilty of refractory conduct at the reformatory school may be committed to gaol or house of correction, with or without hard labour, for any period not exceeding six calendar months. The parent of juvenile offenders sent to reformatory schools to be liable, if of sufficient ability, to contribute to his or her support and maintenance a sum not exceeding 5s. a week. The parent or the person authorized to take proceedings may apply for an order to diminish or to increase the weekly sum payable by the parent under such order, not, however, to exceed 5s. weekly. In case of default of payment by such parent, the same may be levied upon the goods and chattels by distress and sale thereof, and when no sufficient goods can be found, the justices may commit the defendant to the house of correction for any term not exceeding ten days. The managers of reformatory schools may, previous to the discharge of any juvenile offender, place such offender on trial with some person for any term not exceeding twelve months. Any person withdrawing any young person from any reformatory school, or inducing him to abscond therefrom, or harbouring or concealing such young person, or preventing him from returning to such school, to be liable for any such offence to a penalty not exceeding 5l. Offenders may be removed from one school to another.

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JUDGMENT ACT AMENDMENT.

CAP. CV.—*An Act to amend an Act of the 13th and 14th Years of her present Majesty, to amend the Laws concerning Judgments in Ireland.*
(2nd August, 1858.)

Creditors under judgment decree, order, &c., may file supplemental affidavits of facts not included in or under the verification of oaths ; such supplemental affidavits to have the same effect as if the facts had been verified in the original affidavits. Any defect in the affidavit not to invalidate titles under judicial sales.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

SERIES F.—BRITISH INDIA, COLONIES, &c.

21° & 22° VICTORIÆ.

UNITED KINGDOM.

EAST INDIA LOAN.

CAP. III.—*An Act for enabling the East India Company to raise Money of the United Kingdom for the Service of the Government of India.* (22nd March, 1858.)

The East India Company, under the direction and control of the Board of Commissioners for the affairs of India, may raise a loan in the United Kingdom for a sum not exceeding eight millions upon bonds to be issued by the Company. All bonds and debentures issued, and the principal moneys and interest secured, to be charged on the revenue of India.

CHIEF JUSTICE OF BOMBAY.

CAP. XXXII.—*An Act to make valid certain Acts of the late Chief Justice of Bombay.* (12th July, 1858.)

INCUMBERED ESTATES (WEST INDIES) ACT AMENDMENT.

CAP. XCVI.—*An Act to amend "the West Indies Incumbered Estates Act, 1854."* (2nd August, 1858.)

GOVERNMENT OF NEW CALEDONIA.

CAP. XCIX.—*An Act to provide for the Government of New Caledonia.* (2nd August, 1858.)

New Caledonia to be held to comprise all such territories within the dominions of her Majesty as are bounded to the south by the frontier of the United States of America, to the east by the main chain of the Rocky Mountains, to the north by Simpson's river and the Finlay branch of the

Peace river, and to the west by the Pacific Ocean, and to include Queen Charlotte's Island, and all other islands adjacent to the said territories. Her Majesty by order in Council may make or provide for the making of laws for the government of her Majesty's subjects and others in New Caledonia. Her Majesty may establish a local legislature in New Caledonia, to consist of the Governor and a council, or a council and assembly, to be composed of such and so many persons, and to be appointed or elected in such manner as may be expedient. All judgments given in any civil suit in New Caledonia to be subject to appeal to her Majesty in Council. No part of the colony of Vancouver's Island, as at present established, to be comprised within New Caledonia for the purpose of this Act, but her Majesty may, upon an address from the legislature of that island, annex that island to the island of New Caledonia.

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

CAP. CVL.—*An Act for the better Government of India.* (2nd August, 1858.)

The Government of the territories in the possession or under the Government of the East India Company, and all powers in relation to such Government vested in the Company in trust for her Majesty, to cease to be vested in the same, and to be vested in her Majesty, and be exercised in her name. India to be governed by and in the name of her Majesty, and all the territorial and other revenues of or arising in India, and all tributes and other payments to be received for and in the name of her Majesty. One of her Majesty's principal Secretaries of State to exercise all the powers heretofore exercised by the East India Company or Board of Control. Four principal Secretaries and four under Secretaries of State may sit in the House of Commons. Should a fifth principal Secretary of State be appointed, the same to be paid out of the revenue of India. A Council of India, to consist of fifteen members, shall be established; the first council to be appointed as follows: the Court of Directors of the East India Company to elect from among the Directors seven persons, and her Majesty eight persons, and any vacancy to be filled up by her Majesty. The major part of the council to be persons who shall have served or resided ten years in India. Every member of the council is appointed or elected to hold his office during good behaviour. No member of the council being capable of sitting or voting in Parliament. The salary of each member of council to be 1,200*l.*, payable out of the revenues of India, and to any member resigning by reason of infirmity, after holding the office for ten years, there may be allowed a retiring pension during life of 500*l.* The secretaries and other officers and servants on the home establishment of the East India Company, and on the establishment of the Commissioners for the affairs of India, to form the establishment of the Secretary of State in council. The council, under the direction of the Secretary of State, to conduct the business transacted in

the United Kingdom in relation to the government of India and the correspondence with India, every order or communication sent to be signed by one of the principal Secretaries of State. The Secretary of State to divide the council into committees for the more convenient transaction of business. The Secretary of State being the president of the council, with power to appoint any member of the council as vice-president. In case of difference of opinion the determination of the Secretary of State to be final, and both the Secretary of State and any member of the council so objecting to have the power to enter his opinion and the reason for the same in the minutes of the proceeding. Every order or communication proposed to be sent to India to be open to the perusal of members of council who may record their opinion. If a majority of the council record their opinions against any act proposed to be done, the Secretary of State shall, if he do not defer to the opinions of the majority, record his reasons for acting in opposition thereto. Any order, not being an order for which the majority of votes at a meeting is made necessary, which might have been sent through the secret committee, may be sent by the Secretary of State without communicating with the council. The appointments hitherto made by the Court of Directors to be made by her Majesty, and all appointments made in India to continue to be made there. All lands and hereditaments, and all real and personal property of the East India Company, to vest in her Majesty for the purposes of the government of India. The expenditure of the revenues of India, both in India and elsewhere, to be subject to the control of the Secretary of State in council, and no grant to be made without the concurrence of a majority of votes at a meeting of the council. The dividend of the Company, and existing and future debts and liabilities and expenses, to be charged on the revenues of India. The revenues remitted to Great Britain, and moneys arising in Great Britain, to be paid to the Secretary of State in council. When any order is sent to India directing the actual commencement of hostilities by her Majesty's forces in India, the fact of such order having been sent shall be communicated to both Houses of Parliament within three months. And, except for preventing or repelling actual invasion of her Majesty's Indian possessions, or under other sudden and urgent necessity, the revenue of India shall not, without the consent of Parliament, be applicable to defray the expenses of any military operation carried on beyond the external frontiers of such possessions by her Majesty's forces charged upon such revenue. The military and naval forces of the East India Company to be deemed to be the Indian military and naval forces of her Majesty, and to remain under the same conditions of service. All persons who hold any office, employment, or commission under the said Company in India to be deemed to hold such offices under her Majesty. All orders of the Court of Directors or Board of Control to remain in force. All functions and powers of the Court of Directors in relation to the government of India to cease, and the Board of Control was abolished. All books, records, and archives of the Company

to be delivered into the care and custody of the Secretary of State in Council. In all actions, suits, and all proceedings, by or against the Company, pending at the time of the commencement of this Act, the Secretary of State in Council to come in the place of the Company. All treaties made by the Company to be binding on her Majesty, and all contracts made by the Company may be enforced by or against the Secretary of State in Council. But neither the Secretary of State, nor any member of the Council, shall be personally liable in respect of any such contracts. The Secretary of State in Council to pay to the Company out of the revenue of India the expenses of and incident to the payment to the proprietors of the Capital Stock of the Company of their respective shares of the dividend of such stock, and of keeping the books of the Company for transfer, &c. The Company shall still preserve a preference in respect of their dividend on the capital stock and security fund.

No. CXLV.—POOR-RATE AND PAUPERISM.

Statement of the Amount expended for Maintenance and Out-Relief only, for the Half-year ended at Michaelmas 1858 and 1859.

THE amount expended in 645 unions and parishes, during the half-year ending at Michaelmas, 1859, was—for in-maintenance, 485,756*l.*; out-door relief, 1,427,624*l.*; total, 1,913,380*l.* The population of the places referred to was 17,669,641, according to the census of 1851. The sum expended for irremovable poor can be shown for 608 unions and single parishes only, which contain about 15-17ths of the entire population of the kingdom. The sum expended in them for relief during the half-year was—for irremovable poor, in-maintenance, 63,666*l.*; out-door relief, 332,060*l.*—total, 395,726*l.*; other paupers, in-maintenance, 318,966; out-door relief, 994,628*l.*—total, 1,313,594*l.* The cost of relief to the irremovable paupers was 30·1 per cent. of the cost of relief to the other paupers during the half-year; but during the half-year ended at Lady-day, 1858, the ratio was 30·8, so that the proportion has fallen 0·7 during that period. The total expenditure for the half-years ended at Lady-day, 1858 and 1859, in 643 unions and single parishes, was—1858, 2,127,711*l.*; 1859, 1,912,613*l.*—decrease, 215,098, or 10·1 per cent. The average price of wheat during the same half-years was—in 1858, 49*s.* 2½*d.*, and in 1859, 41*s.* 2½*d.* per imperial quarter. The average contract prices of certain articles of food supplied to the guardians during the same periods were as follows:—Bread, in Birmingham, 6*d.* per 4lb. loaf, in both 1858 and 1859; but in Bury St. Edmunds, 5½*d.* in 1858, and 3¾*d.* in 1859: potatoes, at Lambeth, per ton, in 1858, 140*s.*, and in 1859, 85*s.*; mutton and beef, per stone of 14 lbs., in Lambeth, 1858, 7*s.* 8*d.*, and in 1859, 6*s.* 4*d.*; butter, per lb., Lambeth, 1858, 11¾*d.*, 1859, 11½*d.*; cheese, per lb., Lambeth, 1858, 6½*d.*, 1859, 5½*d.*; tea, per lb., Lambeth, 1858, 2*s.* 10*d.*, 1859, 2*s.* 5*d.*; sugar, per lb., Lambeth, 1858, 5½*d.*, 1859, 4½*d.* The extent of employment among the labouring population is shown by the declared value of imports and exports, as follows:—In the half-year ended 31st March, 1858, the imports amounted to 61,549,003*l.*, and the exports to 49,929,935*l.*; and in the half-year ended 31st March, 1859, the imports amounted to 61,412,908*l.*, and exports to 60,824,796*l.* The decrease in the expenditure in the last half-year was spread over every division; the greatest decrease being in the north-western district, 21·7 per cent., and the smallest in the Welsh district, 2·3 per cent.

No. CXLVI.—LONDON CORPORATION.

Abstract of Receipts and Expenditure of the Corporation of the City of London, for the Years 1854, 1855, 1856, and 1857. (Mr. Hankey.) (350.)

THE receipts of the Corporation were as follows:—In 1854, ordinary receipts, 200,872*l.*; extraordinary, 428,297*l.*: in 1855, ordinary,

SERIES G.

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197,286*l.*; extraordinary, 202,066*l.*: and in 1857, ordinary, 205,298*l.*; extraordinary, 386,153*l.* The ordinary revenue in 1857 comprised amongst other incomes, freehold and leasehold rents, 62,030*l.*; rents of the Finsbury estate, 21,541*l.*; markets, 26,361*l.*; coal duty, 64,238*l.*; metage, &c., on corn, fruit, &c., 14,039*l.* The extraordinary receipts included 350,000*l.* money raised to meet outstanding bonds. The expenditure was as follows:—In 1854, ordinary, 170,647*l.*; extraordinary, 426,549*l.*: in 1855, ordinary, 225,121*l.*; extraordinary, 193,661*l.*: in 1856, ordinary, 202,885*l.*; extraordinary, 73,505*l.*: and in 1857, ordinary, 204,030*l.*; and extraordinary, 151,902*l.* The principal items of the ordinary expenditure, in 1857, were:—Prisons: Newgate, House of Correction, Debtors' Prisons, and City Prison, 37,132*l.* Expense of the civil government of the City, 33,859*l.* Extraordinary bonds paid off New Metropolitan Cattle Market, 55,000*l.*; Clerkenwell improvements, 84,984*l.* The debt due by the Corporation of the City of London was, on the 1st January, 1854, 1,314,700*l.*; 1855, 1,665,700*l.*; 1856, 1,827,700*l.*; 1857, 1,867,700*l.*; and 1858, 1,982,600*l.* The debt included 92,700*l.* for new House of Correction at Holloway; 388,000*l.* for new Metropolitan Cattle Market; 540,000*l.* for New Cannon Street; 188,000*l.* for Clerkenwell improvements, &c.

No. CXLVII.—POOR RELIEF.

Total Number of Women and Children chargeable to any Poor-Law Union, &c., in England and Wales, in the Year 1856, in consequence of the Persons by whom they were usually maintained being confined for any Offence against the Game Laws, and the total Cost of the Maintenance of such Persons, either in Out-door or In-door Relief. (Mr. Colville.) (69.)

DURING the year ended 31st December, 1856, there were chargeable, in consequence of game-law offences in England and Wales, 235 women, and 780 children; and the cost of their maintenance was 705*l.*

No. CXLVIII.—PARLIAMENTARY VOTERS.

Number of Voters which appear on the Parliamentary Register for each County, City, and Borough in the United Kingdom, for the Year 1856; and of the Number of Voters who recorded their Votes for the several Candidates at the last General Election in each County, City, and Borough in which the Return was contested. (Lord Naas.) 28th August, 1857. (329. Sess. 2.)

A COMPARISON of the number of voters with the number of those which recorded their votes show the following results:—England: in the county of Bedford the number of voters registered was 4,276; and those who recorded their votes, 2,881: in the county of Devon, Northern, registered voters, 7,390; recorded their votes, 5,982: Essex, Southern, registered, 6,216; voted, 4,185: Hereford, registered, 7,330; voted, 5,566: Kent,

Eastern, registered, 8,117; voted, 4,777—Western, registered, 8,993; voted, 6,822: Middlesex, registered, 15,269; voted, 8,321: Stafford, Northern, registered, 9,739; voted, 6,732: Sussex, Eastern, registered, 6,056; voted, 4,843: York, North Riding, registered, 12,105; voted, 9,643. Wales: Glamorgan, registered, 6,356; voted, 4,992: Flint, registered, 2,889; voted, 2,046: Denbigh, registered, 861; voted, 666. Scotland: Ayr, registered, 3,976; voted, 3,121: Lanark, registered, 3,124; voted, 2,430. Ireland: Cork, registered, 15,633; voted, 15,905: Antrim, registered, 9,676; voted, 10,560: Clare, registered, 3,745; voted, 5,534: Down, registered, 10,759; voted, 14,915: Dublin, registered, 6,123; voted, 6,448: Kilkenny, registered, 5,124; voted, 6,553: Londonderry, registered, 5,081; voted, 6,419: Wexford, registered, 6,371; voted, 9,698.

Among the cities and boroughs the following facts appear:—England: Aylesbury had 1,417 registered voters, but only 957 voted: Chester, registered, 2,428; voted, 1,745: Carlisle, registered, 1,223; voted, 984: Derby, registered, 2,479; voted, 1,330: Plymouth, registered, 2,604; voted, 1,757: Sunderland, registered, 2,493; voted, 2,001: Dover, registered, 2,045; voted, 1,316: Greenwich, registered, 7,888; voted, 5,055: Liverpool, registered, 18,314; voted, 13,681: Manchester, registered, 18,283; voted, 13,786: Salford, registered, 4,028; voted, 3,144: Leicester, registered, 4,153; voted, 3,072: London (City), registered, 19,656; voted, 11,133: Tower Hamlets, registered, 27,980; voted, 1,440: Finsbury, registered, 21,861; voted, 10,365: Norwich, registered, 6,175; voted, 3,964: Newcastle-upon-Tyne, registered, 5,870; voted, 3,778: Nottingham, registered, 5,650; voted, 2,858: Lambeth, registered, 20,012; voted, 12,548: Southwark, registered, 10,170; voted, 6,607: Worcester, registered, 2,560; voted, 1,601. Scotland: Aberdeen, registered, 2,346; voted, 1,884: Glasgow, registered, 18,118; voted, 11,210: Leith, registered, 1,973; voted, 1,522: Falkirk, registered, 1,473; voted, 1,261. Ireland: Belfast, registered, 3,518; voted, 5,055: Dublin, registered, 9,905; voted, 14,321: Galway, registered, 1,115; voted, 1,587.

No. CXLIX.—ELECTORS.

Number of Electors for each County or Division of County in England and Wales, whose Names were upon the Register at the last Election, distinguishing the Number of Electors Resident or Non-resident; also in such Counties or Division of Counties which were contested, the Number of Non-resident Electors who were Unpolled at such Elections, &c. (Mr. Packe.)

IN the county of Bedford there were 4,332 electors on the register, of whom 3,284 were resident, and 948 non-resident. The number of non-resident electors unpollled was 640. In the county of Bucks there were 5,353 electors on the register, of whom 4,015 were resident, and 1,338 non-resident. In the county of Chester, Northern, there were 6,693

electors on the register, of whom 5,214 were resident, and 1,474 non-resident. In the county of Essex, Southern, there were 6,169 electors on the register, of whom 4,279 were resident, and 1,890 non-resident: 987 electors were unpolled. In the county of Lancaster, Northern, there were 12,352 electors on the register, of whom 11,001 were resident, and 1,351 non-resident; and in the Southern portion there were 20,460 electors on the register, of whom 17,926 were resident, and 2,534 non-resident.

No. CL.—MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, AND DEATHS.

Tables of the Number of Marriages, Births, and Deaths registered in England in the Years 1857 and 1858.

In the year 1857, with a population of 17,927,609, according to the census of 1851, there were 159,097 marriages, 663,071 births, and 419,815 deaths. The births included 339,998 males, and 323,073 females. The deaths included 212,356 males, and 207,459 females. The marriages were registered as follows:—33,321, in the quarter ended March; 41,267, June; 38,669, September; and 45,840, December. The births were registered as follows:—170,430 in the quarter ended March; 170,444, June; 161,181, September; and 161,016, December. The deaths were registered as follows:—108,665 in the quarter ended March; 100,046, June; 100,528, September; and 110,576, December.

In the year 1858 there were 156,297 marriages, 655,627 births, and 450,018 deaths. The births included 335,027 males, and 320,600 females. The deaths included 227,539 males, and 222,479 females. The marriages were registered as follows:—In the quarter ended March, 30,034; June, 39,909; September, 38,628; and December, 47,726. The births were registered as follows:—Quarter ended March, 171,001; June, 169,170; September, 157,449; and December, 158,007. The deaths were registered as follows:—Quarter ended March, 125,902; June, 107,193; September, 98,260; and December, 118,663.

No. CLI.—WESTMINSTER NEW PALACE.

Copies of Further Correspondence between the Treasury and Sir Charles Barry, and between the First Commissioner of the Board of Works and Sir Charles Barry, respecting his Remuneration as Architect of the New Palace at Westminster up to the present Time.

FROM a letter of Mr. Russell to Sir Charles Barry, dated 22nd August 1858, it appears that the total amount of accounts which were certified was 1,503,793*l.*, and that the 4 per cent. commission on such sum amounted to 60,151*l.*, on account of which payments had been made to Sir Charles Barry to the extent of 54,735*l.* leaving a sum of 5,416*l.*, due thereon, which with a further commission of 60*l.*, made a balance due of 5,476*l.*

Sir Charles claimed other 173*l*. commission upon amount paid for salaries, &c.; but this sum was disallowed by the Commissioners of Works. Further correspondence having taken place with respect to other items disallowed, Sir Charles Barry, on the 18th February, 1857, put himself in the hands of the First Commissioner of Works to make such allowances in future as he may consider just and proper, but enclosed the following protest in order to vindicate himself in consequence of the continual reductions made on his claims upon insufficient grounds:—

PROTEST of the ARCHITECT against the Decision formed by the Lords Commissioners of Her Majesty's Treasury in respect of his Claims, and enforced on the plea of an alleged Bargain between him and the Government of 1839.

Firstly. Because the alleged bargain was, in fact, no bargain, in the true sense of the term, but a dictum of the Government of 1839, issued after nineteen months' progress had been made with the works by the architect, upon the understanding of receiving his accustomed commission of five per cent. upon outlay, and in contravention of an allowance made by the authorities in the Department of Woods and Works of that rate of commission, which was added by them to the amount of his estimate, as approved by Parliament; and because, that although this dictum, which, contrary to all precedent and professional usage, had the effect of reducing the just claims of the architect to the extent of 10,000*l*., was yielded to by him at the time under pressure, his acquiescence was conditional, and under a protest both then and on various subsequent occasions made by him as to its injustice, without any rejoinder on the part of the Government, all payments made to the architect from time to time in the interval having been received by him as only on account.

Secondly. Because, even if it be assumed, for the sake of argument, that the dictum of the Government of 1839 constituted a bargain, the circumstances have been entirely altered, and the conditions upon which it was based have been altogether violated, from no fault on the part of the architect, whereby such bargain would be rendered null and void.

Thirdly. Because the principle of dictation, adopted by the Government of 1839 towards the architect, was ordered by the Treasury at the same time to be applied to the profession at large, in respect of all future public buildings thereafter erected, but has never been so applied in any single instance. On the contrary, the architects of all public buildings, since erected and now in progress, have been paid, and are still being paid, at the accustomed rate of five per cent. upon outlay, and in some instances at even a higher rate of percentage.

Fourthly. Because, as the dictum of the Government of 1839 could not have contemplated any allowance for a general measurement of the works (which works, being at first contracted for in the gross, rendered all such measurement on the part of the architect unnecessary), the rate of commission now awarded to the architect by the Treasury, namely, three per cent. for the æsthetical, and less than one per cent. for the financial duties which have been unexpectedly thrown upon him, falls far short of the amount of remuneration sanctioned even by the dictum of the Government of 1839.

Fifthly. Because, considering the difficulties which the architect has encountered and overcome in conducting, during a period of nearly 20

years, the works of a building covering more than eight acres of ground, containing above 1,180 rooms, 19 halls, 126 staircases, and more than two miles of corridors, passages, &c., under eight successive Governments, subject to the interference and interruptions of fifteen parliamentary and other official inquiries, and to the constant and often contradictory orders resulting from opinions expressed both in and out of Parliament, involving extensive changes of plan, whereby no less than 12 official residences (now 18 in all) and a large amount of extra accommodation have been provided beyond the accommodation afforded by the original design, thus increasing the cubical contents of the building more than 50 per cent., and occasioning constant revisions and recastings of the design of the entire structure; also considering the difficulties of carrying on the works piecemeal during the constant sittings of Parliament in temporary structures, and in portions of the old and new buildings on the same site; the forming of the foundations of the building on a treacherous soil, partly within the river, and more than 16 feet below the level of high water, and other circumstances,—the great amount of extra labours, anxieties, and responsibilities which have thereby been thrown upon the architect have not been duly appreciated.

Sixthly. Because it is evident that the Treasury must be aware of the injustice of its decision, inasmuch as it now invites the profession at large to compete for employment upon the intended new public offices (which are proposed to be on a scale of expenditure far greater than that of the New Palace at Westminster), on the understanding that the architect or architects to be employed will be paid the accustomed commission of five per cent. upon outlay.

Seventhly. Because, after every effort to have the case fairly tested upon its merits, and repeated offers on the part of the architect to abide by the result of an arbitration, on a broad and equitable principle, unfettered by legal technicalities, the Treasury has pertinaciously refused to accede to any arbitration whatever, and has determined to keep the case in its own hands, and to dictate its own terms.

And, lastly. Because, by the decision in question, which, practically, as is well known in all cases between an individual and the Government, leaves the architect little or no chance of a remedy at law, the Treasury has committed an act of injustice and oppression towards him, whereby the honour and good faith of the country are compromised.

(Signed) CHARLES BARRY.

This protest having been laid before the Treasury, the Commissioner of Works was desired to make any observation upon it he might have to offer, and on the 24th April, 1857, Sir B. Hall, in answer, referred to the fact that in 1839 the agreement was that Sir C. Barry was to receive 25,000*l.* remuneration for his time, trouble, and expense in the superintendence, direction, and completion of the intended new building, and showed that Sir C. Barry received in twenty years 80,000*l.*, which is in itself a reward quite unprecedented in the practice of architecture.

On the 11th January, 1858, Sir B. Hall laid before the Treasury a correspondence with Sir C. Barry respecting the works at the new Houses at Westminster, in which he informed Sir C. Barry that he would not apply to Parliament for any further grant towards defraying the cost of the works

for the completion of the new Palace until he should have furnished him with certain accounts, specifications, and estimates therein particularized. These specifications and estimates, amounting to 68,924*l.*, were afterwards given on the 18th February, 1858; but the information given was not sufficiently explicit, and Sir B. Hall declined making any recommendation for a vote previous to the resignation of the Ministry.

No. CLII.—NEWSPAPERS.

Return of the Registered Newspapers in the United Kingdom, and of the Number of Stamps at One Penny issued to each, and also of registered Publications, and of Stamps issued to them. (Mr. Crawford.) 29th July, 1858. (489.)

UPWARDS of 800 newspapers are registered in the United Kingdom. First amongst these is the Times, for which, in the last quarter of 1857, there were issued 677,327 stamps at 1*d.*, and 265,807 at 1½*d.*; next came the Illustrated London News, for which there were issued 359,051 stamps at 1*d.*, and 25,000 at 1½*d.* For the Morning Post there were issued 105,000 stamps; Morning Herald, 67,000; Morning Advertiser, 30,000; Daily News, 54,900; Evening Mail, 120,000; Express, 149,000; Lloyd's Weekly 73,000; London Gazette, 130,000; News of the World, 166,000; Punch, 45,000; Shipping Gazette, 90,000; Sun, 52,000; Stamford Mercury, 80,000; Weekly Dispatch, 74,000; Liverpool Mercury, 84,500; Mark Lane Express, 78,000; Naval and Military Gazette, 166,800; Magnet, 85,900; Publishers' Circular, 45,500; Record, 117,500; St. James's Chronicle, 53,000; North British Advertiser, 194,000; Daily Express, Ireland, 161,000; General Advertiser, 148,500; Cork Constitution, 40,000.

Among the smaller publications there were—the Anti-Slavery Reporter, Beautiful Poetry, Bible Society Reporter, Bibliotheca Scientia Londinensis, British Millennial Harbinger, British Temperance Advocate, Catholic School, Christian Annotator, Circulator, Colliery Guardian, Earthen Vessel, Educator, Englische Correspondenz, Gazette of Fashion, Gospel Missionary, Gavazzi's Free Word, Galvanized Iron Roofs, Herald of Peace, Inquirer, Jewish Chronicle, Journal of Commerce, Lady's News, L'Eco di Sayonarola, Le Courier de l'Europe, L'Homme, Masonic Mirror, Magnet, Missionary Herald, Man of Ross Miscellany, Nonconformist, Notices of the Astronomical Society, News of the Week, Nouvelle Chronique de Jersey, Papers for the Schoolmaster, People, People's Paper, Petites Affiches de Londres, Philanthropist, Protestant World, Review, Sentinel, Tribune, Vegetarian Messenger, Bauer Cymru, Silurian, Yr Haul, &c., &c.

No. CLIII.—LAND REGISTRY OFFICE.

Return from each of the Land Registry Offices in the Counties of Middlesex and York, and in the Bedford Level, and in the Kingdom of Ireland, of the Amount of Fees annually paid in respect of registering Assurances, and of the Amount of the Sums annually paid in respect of Searches, &c. (Samuel Gurney.) 28th May, 1858. (501.)

In the County of Middlesex the number of assurances registered from 1848 to 1857 averaged 14,000, and the total amount of fees paid for registries, and for searches, about 6,500*l.* per annum. The salaries and emoluments amounted to 2,000*l.* In the East Riding of York the number of assurances averaged 1,400, and the total fees paid for registries and searches about 600*l.* In the North Riding of York the number of assurances registered was about 1,700, and the money paid for registering and searches 600*l.* In the West Riding of York the number of assurances registered was 9,000, and the amount paid for registries and searches about 2,400*l.* In Bedford Level there were registered about 80 assurances per annum, and the amount of money paid for registries and searches was about 100*l.* In Ireland, the number of assurances registered was in 1858, 11,000, for which fees were paid to the extent of 6,500*l.* There were, moreover, made 1,500 searches, for which fees were paid to the amount of 4,500*l.*, making a total for registries and searches of 11,000*l.* The salaries of officers and emoluments of clerks, 56 in all, amounted to 10,000*l.* per annum.

No. CLIV.—REGISTRY OF DEEDS (DUBLIN).

Copies of Treasury Minutes, dated 8th June, 12th August, and 1st October, 1857, in reference to the Classification and Salaries in the Registry of Deeds Office, Dublin. (Mr. Grogan.) 2nd August, 1858. (512.)

A PUBLIC Register Office was established in Dublin in the reign of Queen Anne, by an Act of the Irish Parliament, for registering all deeds, conveyances, and wills; but the Act which at present regulates the Office is the 3rd and 4th William IV., cap. 87, by which the establishment was made to consist of a registrar, with a salary of 1,500*l.* per annum; two assistant registrars, with salaries of 700*l.* per annum, and 450*l.* per annum respectively; and three clerks, with salaries of 250*l.*, 250*l.*, and 100*l.* respectively. There was also a provision to enable the Registrar to meet the pressing and fluctuating demands of the public by employing additional clerks, and paying them by the week for the work actually done. The 35th section of the Act, moreover, gave to the Treasury power to determine from time to time what number of persons should be employed, the duty which should be performed by each individual, the amount of salary to be paid to each, as well as "to dispense with the services of all or any one of the individuals now appointed or employed, or hereafter to be employed in the Register

Office, or to reduce the salary of any individual. The only limitation to these comprehensive powers was a proviso, to the effect that no reduction should be made in the salary of the then registrar, and no alteration in the tenure by which he held his office, and that every regulation made by the Treasury under the Act should be laid before both Houses of Parliament, and not be conclusive until after the end of the session. These extensive powers, however, have been but sparingly used by the Treasury. The salary of the registrar, upon the occurrence of a vacancy, was reduced to 1,200*l.* per annum, from 1,500*l.*; and the other officers receive as follows:—The first assistant registrar 600*l.*, instead of 700*l.*; the second assistant registrar 500*l.*, instead of 450*l.*; the first clerk 300*l.*, instead of 250*l.*; the second 250*l.*; the third 100*l.*, as per schedule.

On the other hand, the registrar, instead of confining himself to appointing such clerks only as might be required from time to time, in addition to the ordinary demands of the office, and paying them according to the amount of work they had been able to perform, appointed a large number of permanent clerks, divided into classes, receiving different rates of weekly salary, and contributing to the Superannuation Fund; and as the whole number so appointed was larger than was required for the work to be done, only such amount of work was demanded from each person as was considered a fair equivalent for the salary which had been previously assigned to him.

Objection having been made to such proceeding, the Lords of the Treasury passed a minute, providing that the establishment of the Registrar of Deeds shall consist, as at present, of a registrar and two assistant registrars, but that the assistant registrars shall derive the benefit of a graduated increase of salary by length of service. That there shall be three classes of clerks, with graduated increases of salary—the first class to consist of two clerks, the second of ten clerks, the third of twenty clerks, and that these persons shall be selected from those now upon the establishment, and those employed by the registrars at weekly salaries. That no persons shall henceforth be employed by the registrar except by piecework, at so much per folio, and only in such proportion as to meet the pressing and fluctuating demands of the office. That such persons should be paid out of the incidents of the office, and a return made at the end of each quarter of the number of persons who have been so employed, and the amount paid to each, and that the attention of the Treasury should be immediately called to the necessity (whenever it may arise) of increasing or diminishing the permanent strength of the office.

By another Treasury minute, dated the 12th August, 1857, the establishment of the Registry of Deeds in Ireland was determined to consist of—One registrar, at 1,200*l.* per annum. Two assistant registrars: one at 600*l.*, rising by 25*l.* per annum to 700*l.*; one at 500*l.*, rising by 25*l.* per annum to 600*l.* Two first-class clerks: one at 300*l.*, rising by 15*l.* to 360*l.*; one

at 300*l*., rising by 15*l*. to 360*l*.; and one of the two rising by 20*l*. from 360*l*. to 400*l*. per annum. Ten second-class clerks: each rising from 150*l*. per annum by 10*l*. per annum to 250*l*. Twenty third-class clerks: each rising from 80*l*. per annum by 5*l*. per annum to 130*l*. per annum. So many transcribers as are absolutely necessary, after the first appointment of all persons now employed who are not absorbed in the above classes, from 20*s*. a week, rising by 1*s*. a week to 30*s*. a week.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

SERIES G.—POPULATION, MUNICIPAL, &c.

21° & 22° VICTORIAE.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

PROPERTY QUALIFICATION.

CAP. XXVI.—*An Act to abolish the Property Qualification of Members of Parliament.* (28th June, 1858.)

The several Acts and parts of Acts, viz., 9th Anne, cap. 5; 33rd Geo. II., cap. 20; 59th Geo. III., cap. 37; 1st and 2nd Vict., cap. 48; 39th and 40th Geo. III., cap. 67; 40th Geo. III., cap. 38 (Ireland); and 41st Geo. III., cap. 101, regulating the qualifications of members to serve in the United Parliament of Great Britain and Ireland, were repealed.

MARRIAGES.

CAP. XLVI.—*An Act to remove Doubts as to the Validity of certain Marriages of British Subjects abroad.* (23rd July, 1858.)

All marriages which have been solemnized in the chapel of the Russia Company at Moscow, by the chaplain of the Company or other minister; and all marriages solemnized in the Island of Tahiti, or its dependencies, in the presence of her Majesty's consul there; and all marriages solemnized at Ningpo, in the presence of her Majesty's consul there, to be held as valid as if the same had been solemnized within her Majesty's dominions.

JEWS.

CAP. XLIX.—*An Act to provide for the Relief of her Majesty's Subjects professing the Jewish Religion.* (23rd July, 1858.)

Where it shall appear to either House of Parliament that a person professing the Jewish religion, otherwise entitled to sit and vote in such house, is prevented from so sitting and voting by his conscientious objection to take the oath which is prescribed, such House may resolve that thenceforth any person professing the Jewish religion, in taking the said oath, may omit the words, "and I make this declaration upon the true faith of a Christian," and so long as such resolution shall continue in force, the said

oath, when taken and subscribed by any person professing the Jewish religion, may be modified accordingly; and the taking and subscribing by any person professing the Jewish religion of the oath so modified, so far as respects the title to sit and vote in such House to have the same force and effect as the taking and subscribing by other persons of the said oath in the form required by the Act. In all other cases, except for sitting in Parliament or on qualifying to exercise the right of presentation to any ecclesiastical benefice in Scotland, whenever any of her Majesty's subjects professing the Jewish religion, shall be required to take the said oath, the words, "and I make this declaration upon the true faith of a Christian," shall be omitted. No person professing the Jewish religion to hold or exercise the office of Guardians and Justices of the United Kingdom, or of Regent of the United Kingdom, under whatever name or title, or of Lord High Chancellor, Lord Keeper or Lord Commissioner of the Great Seal of Great Britain or Ireland, or the office of Lord Lieutenant, or Deputy, or other chief governor of Ireland, or her Majesty's High Commissioner to the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland. When any right of presentation to any ecclesiastical benefice is possessed by persons professing the Jewish religion, the same is to devolve upon the Archbishop of Canterbury for the time being.

CORRUPT PRACTICES PREVENTION.

CAP. LXXXVII.—*An Act to continue and amend the Corrupt Practices Prevention Act, 1854.* (2nd August, 1858.)

A candidate may provide conveyance for any voter for the purpose of polling at an election. An election auditor is not to act as election agent. The word, "candidate at an election," to include all persons elected to serve in Parliament at such election, and all persons nominated as candidates at such election, or who shall have declared themselves candidates at such election on or after the day of the issuing of the writ for such election, or after the dissolution or vacancy in consequence of which such writ shall have been issued; provided that nothing shall be construed to impose any liability on any person nominated without his consent.

LEGITIMACY DECLARATION.

CAP. XCIII.—*An Act to enable Persons to establish Legitimacy and the Validity of Marriages, and the Right to be deemed Natural born Subjects.* (2nd August, 1858.)

Any natural born subject of the Queen, or any person whose right to be deemed a natural born subject depends wholly or in part on his legitimacy, or on the validity of a marriage, being domiciled in England or Ireland, or claiming any real or personal estate situate in England, may apply to the Court for Divorce and Matrimonial Causes, praying for a decree declaring that the petitioner is a legitimate child of his parents, and that the marriage

of his father and mother was a valid marriage. Any person being so domiciled may apply to the same court for a decree declaratory of his right to be deemed a natural born subject of her Majesty. Any person domiciled in Scotland or claiming any heritable or moveable property situate in Scotland, may raise and insist on an action of declarator before the Court of Session that he is entitled to be deemed a natural born subject.

NEW WRITS.

CAP. CX.—*An Act to extend the Act of the 24th Year of King George III. c. 26, for issuing Writs during the Prorogation or Adjournment of the House of Commons.* (2nd August, 1858.)

The Speaker may, during any prorogation or adjournment, issue warrants for making out new writs for the election of members of the House, in the room of any member who has accepted any office, or otherwise vacated his seat in the House of Commons.

ENGLAND.

NON-PAROCHIAL REGISTERS.

CAP. XXV.—*An Act to amend the Act concerning Non-Parochial Registers, and the Acts for Marriages, and for registering Births, Deaths, and Marriages in England, and concerning Vaccination.* (14th June, 1858.)

The Registrar-General of births, deaths, and marriages in England, shall receive, and deposit in the General Register Office, all the registers of births, baptisms, deaths, burials, and marriages now in the custody of the Commissioners for Non-parochial Registers appointed under 3rd and 4th Vict., cap. 92. In every case in which an inquest shall be held on any dead body, the coroner shall furnish all the information in writing. Vaccination forms, as required by the 16th and 17th Vict., cap. 100, are to be furnished to the registrars, and delivered by them to the medical officers and practitioners.

HARVEY'S CHARITY.

CAP. XXIX.—*An Act for confirming a Scheme of the Charity Commissioners for Sir Eliab Harvey's Charity, in the Town of Folkestone.* (28th June, 1858.)

BRISTOL MUNICIPAL CHARITIES.

CAP. XXX.—*An Act for confirming a Scheme of the Charity Commissioners for certain Municipal Charities in the City of Bristol.* (28th June, 1858.)

BRISTOL, ST. NICHOLAS' AND ST. LEONARD'S CHARITIES.

CAP. XXXI.—*An Act for confirming a Scheme of the Charity Commissioners for certain Charities in the Parishes of St. Nicholas and St. Leonard, in the City of Bristol.* (28th June, 1858.)

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COUNTY MANAGEMENT.

CAP. XXXIII.—*An Act for the better Management of County Rates.*
(12th July, 1858.)

In any county having one commission of the peace, and being divided into separate divisions, having each a separate county treasurer, the justices of the peace of the county may prepare the basis or standard of rates for the whole county. The justices of such divisions shall, nevertheless, raise all county rates, and administer all disbursements thereout, in such divisions as heretofore.

HAINAULT FOREST.

CAP. XXXVII.—*An Act to provide for the Allotment of the Commonable Lands within the Boundaries of the late Forest of Hainault, in the County of Essex.* (23rd July, 1858.)

MUNICIPAL FRANCHISE.

CAP. XLIII.—*An Act to amend the Municipal Franchise in certain Cases.*
(23rd July, 1858.)

Where the owner of any house, apartment, or dwelling, rated to the relief of the poor, has paid all money due on account of any rate in respect of such house, the occupier shall be entitled to all municipal privileges and franchises under the 5th and 6th William IV., cap. 76, as if he was rated instead of the owner. If the owner so rated has not paid such rates, the occupier may tender the amount, in order to be entitled to exercise the same privileges.

CHARITABLE TRUSTS ACTS.

CAP. LI.—*An Act further to continue the Exemption of certain Charities from the Operation of the Charitable Trusts Acts.* (23rd July, 1858.)

RETURNS TO THE SECRETARY OF STATE.

CAP. LXVII.—*An Act to repeal certain Enactments requiring Returns to be made to one of the Secretaries of State.* (2nd August, 1858.)

Certain prison reports, borough police returns, police courts returns, bastardy returns, and juvenile offenders' returns, to be discontinued, as they became unnecessary.

DETACHED PARTS OF COUNTIES.

CAP. LXVIII.—*An Act to amend the Law concerning Detached Parts of Counties.* (2nd August, 1858.)

Detached parts of counties may be transferred, for the purpose of the constabulary. When any agreement is made in relation thereto, the justices may contract for the care of prisoners.

CHELSEA BRIDGE.

CAP. LXVI.—*An Act to amend the Act 9th and 10th Victoria, cap. 39, and to abolish Foot-Passenger Tolls on Chelsea Bridge, after Payment of the Sum of 80,000*l.* and Interest.* (2nd August, 1858.)

COWLEY'S CHARITY.

CAP. LXXXI.—*An Act for confirming a Scheme of the Charity Commissioners for Cowley's Charity, in the Parish of Winstead, in the County of Lincoln.* (2nd August, 1858.)

LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

CAP. XCVIII.—*An Act to amend the Public Health Act, 1848, and to make further Provision for the Local Government of Towns and Populous Districts.* (2nd August, 1858.)

The Act may be adopted by resolution of council, improvement commissioners, or owners and ratepayers, at a public meeting regularly summoned. Even places not having a known or defined boundary may adopt the Act by a petition signed by one-tenth of the ratepayers resident within such boundaries. The duty of carrying into execution this Act shall be vested in a local board; and such local board to be—(1.) In corporate boroughs, the mayor, aldermen, and burgesses, acting by the council; (2.) In other places, under the jurisdiction of such a board of improvement commissioners as the Board of Commissioners; (3.) In other places, such number of elective members as may be determined by a resolution of the owners and ratepayers passed at a meeting held for the purpose. The local board to have power to dispose of the sewage, and to contract with any company or person for the sale of the sewage, or for the distribution of it over any land. The local board may themselves undertake or contract with any person for the proper cleansing and watering of streets, the removal of house refuse from premises, and the cleansing of privies, ashpits, and cesspools. The local board may make bye-laws for the prevention of nuisances arising from snow, dust, filth, ashes, and rubbish, within their district, or of the keeping of animals so as to be injurious to the public health. The local boards may make bye-laws with respect to the level, width, and construction of new streets, with respect to the structure of walls of new buildings—to the sufficiency of space about buildings, to secure a free circulation of air—and to the drainage of buildings, &c. When any house or building has been taken down, in order to be rebuilt or altered, the local board may prescribe the line in which the same shall be rebuilt; and it may purchase premises for purposes of making new streets. The local boards may also provide for sewerage of parts of streets not being highways, and with the consent of the proprietors of any canals, railways, &c., may construct public bridges, &c., or adopt any improvement in existing bridges over or

under canals, railways, or tramroads. The provisions of the "Towns Police Clauses Act, 1847," with respect to obstructions and nuisances in the streets, fires, places of public resort, hackney carriages, and bathing, to be incorporated with this Act. Also the provisions of the "Towns Improvement Clauses Act, 1847," with respect to the naming of streets, prevention of smoke, slaughter-houses, clocks, &c. The local boards to have power to establish markets, with the consent of the owners and ratepayers. The other clauses refer to expenses and rates, audit of accounts, legal proceedings, &c.

METROPOLIS LOCAL MANAGEMENT.

CAP. CIV.—*An Act to alter and amend the Metropolis Local Management Act (1855), and to extend the Powers of the Metropolitan Board of Works for the Purification of the Thames, and the Main Drainage of the Metropolis.* (2nd August, 1858.)

The Metropolitan Board of Works to commence sewerage works as soon as possible. The Board may construct any works on the shores and bed of the Thames, making compensation to all persons having any interest in any wharfs, jetties, or other property damaged by such works. The powers of taking land to apply for the purpose of deodorizing sewage and other works. The Board may raise 3,000,000*l.* by bonds or debentures, and the Treasury may guarantee the payment of money so borrowed. The Board to levy a rate of 3*d.* in the pound on the property in the metropolis during forty years from the passing of this Act, such rate to be called "The Metropolis Main Drainage Rate." For the purposes of this assessment all the parts of the metropolis shall be deemed to be equally benefited by the expenditure under this Act. The Metropolitan Board of Works may meanwhile, and until the works for the purification of the river Thames are complete, apply all such means as they may deem proper for deodorizing such sewage, or otherwise protecting public health from any injurious consequences therefrom. The time limited for the completion of the works is extended to the end of 1863. The works to be approved by the Admiralty, and the works upon the shores of the river Thames to be approved by the Conservators of the river Thames.

SCOTLAND.

NEW GENERAL POST OFFICE, EDINBURGH.

CAP. XL.—*An Act to confer Powers on the Commissioners of her Majesty's Works and Public Buildings, to acquire the Theatre Royal, Edinburgh, and adjacent Property, for the erection of a new General Post-office, and for other Purposes.* (23rd July, 1858.)

No. LXVII.—ROYAL VICTORIA HOSPITAL.

Report on the Site, &c., of the Royal Victoria Hospital, near Netley Abbey.

WITH a view to the removal of the great inconvenience to the service, arising from the defects of the General Hospital at Fort Pitt, as well as from the total inadequacy of the accommodation provided in the casemates at St. Mary's, Chatham, for the reception of the invalids of the army, the Secretary of State for War deemed it desirable, in 1855, that a great Military Hospital should be substituted for these establishments; and Lord Panmure considered that it would be for the advantage of the public service if this hospital could be placed within a moderate distance of either of the great ports of Portsmouth or of Plymouth.

The Director-General of the Army Medical Department, in a communication addressed to the Secretary of State for War, stated, that he was desirous that the hospital referred to should be "on the coast, or on some large inlet of the sea, so that invalids from abroad could be landed immediately, and marched into their barracks, and the sick, without injury, be placed in hospital."

After several localities had been inspected and reported upon, Sir James Clark, who, as one of the best authorities on climate in England, had been consulted, suggested—"The eastern shore of Southampton Water, a little below Netley Abbey, as the ground there seemed to be gravelly, and sloped upwards from the water," and he was of opinion that a good spot could be selected, "sheltered from the north and east winds." In this opinion, as to the advantages of the position of Netley, Sir James was supported by the report on the geological formation of the site by Professor Ramsay, Director of the Geological Survey of Great Britain. The "district close to Netley Abbey," was also recommended by Dr. A. Smith, the Director-General of the Medical Department, in a letter of the 5th June, 1856, to Lord Panmure.

Captain Laffan and Dr. Mapleton were then directed to inspect and report upon the site recommended by such high authority, and found that the characteristics of the locality fully justified these recommendations. They found a "space of ground presenting a gravelly bank or cliff, from ten to twenty-five in height, to the water, and rising from thence upwards at a gradual slope till it joined a higher ridge behind it, the soil being of deep dry sand and gravel, resting in some places on brick earth. The facilities of drainage very great, drinking water of excellent quality, means of landing easily supplied;" and, "on the concurrent testimony of all the people living near the spot, declared to be eminently healthy." But objections continued to be raised on the site, and the question was remitted to a committee, consisting of Colonel O'Brien, Captain Laffan, Dr. Sutherland, and Dr. Mapleton. Colonel Owen subsequently replaced Captain Laffan; and the committee reported as follows:—

1. That the site is unobjectionable.

2. That the building is well adapted to the purposes for which it was designed.

3. That it is not the sort of building best adapted for a medical school on the scale contemplated by Mr. Sidney Herbert's Committee, nor was it designed for such a purpose.

4. Considering the large expenditure already incurred at Netley, and the importance of making early provision for the sick of the army, we do not certainly recommend that an otherwise good hospital should be converted into a barrack.

5. If a medical school is to be established, it appears to us that the best place for it would be at some large military station.

No. LXVIII.—QUARANTINE.

Returns received from the British Colonies of the number of Ships placed in Quarantine, and of other Particulars relative thereto, in each of the Ten Years ending 31st December, 1854. (Mr. Chichester Fortescue, 26th February, 1858. 103.)

IN North American Colonies:—in Canada there were 456 ships placed in quarantine, for an aggregate of 2,952 days. The number of passengers on board was 130,897, and of the crew, 9,049. The greatest number was in 1847, when there were 225 ships; and in 1849, when there were 50 ships in quarantine. In Nova Scotia, the number of ships put in quarantine in the ten years was 17, for an aggregate of 137 days. In Prince Edward's Islands, 3 ships. In Newfoundland, 289 ships, principally in 1849 and 1854. In Bermuda 12 ships. West Indies and Mauritius:—in Jamaica, 23; in Barbadoes, 44 ships; in Grenada, 15 ships; in Tobago, 23 ships; in St. Vincent, 20 ships; in Antigua, 23 ships; in Montserrat, 3 ships; in St. Kitt's, 11 ships; in Nevis, 6 ships; in Dominica, 11 ships; in Mauritius, 89 ships. African Settlements:—in Sierra Leone, 15 ships; in Gambia, 1 ship; in Gold Coast, none; in St. Helena, 25 ships; in the Cape of Good Hope, 6 ships. Australian Colonies and New Zealand:—in New South Wales, 64 ships; Victoria, 28 ships; Tasmania, 1 ship; in South Australia, none; in Western Australia, 3 ships. Eastern Colonies:—in Ceylon, 19 ships; in Hong Kong, Labuan, and Falkland, none. Mediterranean Possessions:—in Gibraltar, 3,286 ships, for an aggregate of 13,765 days, and an aggregate of 5,204 passengers on board, and 26,756 of the crew. In Malta, 9,415 ships, for an aggregate of 47,430 days, and an aggregate of 59,937 passengers on board, and 146,429 of the crew. In the Ionian Islands there were 3,829 ships put in quarantine for an aggregate of 20,742 days, with an aggregate of 4,293 passengers on board, and 34,999 of the crew.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

SERIES H.—HEALTH, ENCLOSURES, &c.

21° & 22° VICTORIÆ.

UNITED KINGDOM.

SHEEP, AND CONTAGIOUS DISEASES PROVISION.

CAP. LXII.—*An Act to continue certain Acts to prevent the spreading of Contagious or Infectious Diseases among Sheep, Cattle and other Animals.* (2nd August, 1858.)

ENGLAND.

GENERAL BOARD OF HEALTH, SKIPTON.

CAP. X.—*An Act to confirm a certain Provisional Order of the General Board of Health, applying the Public Health Act, 1848, to the District of Skipton, in the West Riding of the County of York, and to further declare the Limits of the District of Toxteth Park, in the County Palatine of Lancaster, for the Purpose of the said Act.* (11th May, 1858.)

COMMONS INCLOSURE.

CAP. VIII.—*An Act to authorize the Enclosure of certain Lands, in pursuance of a Report of the Inclosure Commissioners for England and Wales.* (26th March, 1858.)

CHELSEA HOSPITAL.

CAP. XVIII.—*An Act to effect an exchange between the Commissioners of Chelsea Hospital and the Governor and Company of Chelsea Waterworks, of Lands in the Parishes of Saint George, Hanover Square, and Saint Margaret, Westminster, in the County of Middlesex.* (21st May, 1858.)

CHELSEA HOSPITAL.

CAP. XXI.—*An Act confirming a contract for the Sale by the Commissioners of her Majesty's Works of certain Lands to the Commissioners of Chelsea Hospital.* (14th June, 1858.)

COPYHOLD AND INCLOSURE COMMISSIONS.

CAP. LIII.—*An Act to continue Appointments under the Act for consolidating the Copyhold and Inclosure Commissions, and for completing Proceedings under the Tithe Commutation Acts.* (20th July, 1858.)

INCLOSURE OF LANDS.

CAP. LXI.—*An Act to authorize the Inclosure of certain Lands in pursuance of a special Report of the Inclosure Commissioners of England and Wales.* (2nd August, 1858.)

TURNPIKE TRUSTS ARRANGEMENTS.

CAP. LXXV.—*An Act to confirm certain Provisional Orders made under an Act of the Fifteenth Year of her present Majesty, to facilitate Arrangement for the Relief of Turnpike Trusts, and to extend the Provisions of the said Act.* (2nd August, 1858.)

COPYHOLD ACTS AMENDMENT.

CAP. XCIV.—*An Act to amend the Copyhold Acts.* (2nd August, 1858.)

Several Acts and parts of Acts, viz., the 16th & 17th Vict., c. 57; 4th & 5th Vict., c. 35, s. 11, and 15th & 16th Vict., c. 51, ss. 2, 11, 27, were repealed. The Copyhold Acts not to extend to any manor belonging either in possession or reversion to any ecclesiastical corporation. Whenever the enfranchisement could have been made under the Act to facilitate the management and improvement of episcopal and capitular estates in England, the moneys or rent-charges which form the consideration for such enfranchisement shall be made and applied in the same manner and to the same account as if the said enfranchisement had been made under this Act. The tenant or lord of any copyhold lands to which the last admittance shall have taken place before the 1st of July, 1853, or of any freehold lands in respect of which the last heriot shall have become due or payable before the 1st July, 1853, may compel enfranchisement of the said lands. And at any time after any such heriot shall have become due and payable, the lord or the tenant may compel the extinguishment of all such claim to heriots and the enfranchisement of the lands subject thereto, or the parties may agree to refer the valuation to the commissioners, or to two valuers, one appointed by each, the commissioners appointing an umpire. Whenever a rent-charge is to be held, at a rent-charge varying with the price of corn, such rent-

charge is to be calculated upon the same average, and variable in the same manner as a tithe commutation rent charge. After enfranchisement the owners of the soil shall have power and right to disturb or remove the soil, so far as may be necessary for the purpose of making roads or drains, or erecting buildings, or obtaining water upon the said lands. In case of a corporation, or other lord of any manor, holding upon any charitable trust, the enfranchisement money may be paid to the official trustees of Charitable Trust Acts. Enfranchisement money for the use of a corporation, &c., may, at the option of the lord of the manor, be paid into the hands of trustees. When any land proposed to be enfranchised is held of a manor belonging to an ecclesiastical corporation, the notice of the same shall be given to the Ecclesiastical Commissioners. The consideration money and the value of land given as enfranchisement, and the expenses incurred in proceedings, may be charged upon the land commuted or enfranchised. Any charge under this Act made in consideration of the value of land conveyed as consideration, or of consideration or compensation money, &c., shall be a first charge on such manor or land, and shall have priority over all mortgages, charges, &c. When land is held on undivided shares the person for the time being in receipt of at least two-thirds of the value of the rents and profits of such land to be the tenant of such land. Any manor vested in her Majesty in right of her Crown may be dealt with under the Copyhold Acts.

PUBLIC HEALTH.

CAP. XCVII.—*An Act for vesting in the Privy Council certain Powers for the protection of the Public Health.*

The powers of the General Board of Health under the Disease Prevention Act, 1855, to be added to those of the Privy Council. The Privy Council may issue regulations to regulate the due qualification of persons appointed for the vaccination of persons resident in unions and parishes in England. The Privy Council may cause inquiries to be made concerning the public health of any place. And it may also appoint a medical officer to report annually in relation to any matters concerning the public health, the annual report to be laid before Parliament. Proceedings for penalties under Vaccination Acts may be taken under the complaint of any Registrar of Births, Deaths, and Marriages, Public Vaccinator, or officer authorized by the Board of Guardians, &c.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

MEDICAL PRACTITIONERS.

CAP. XCII.—*An Act to regulate the Qualification of Practitioners in Medicine and Surgery.* (2nd August, 1858.)

A council to be styled "The General Council of Medical Education and Registration of the United Kingdom" to be established, with branch councils

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for England, Scotland, and Ireland. The council to consist of one person chosen from time to time by each of the following bodies, viz.:—The Royal College of Physicians, the Royal College of Surgeons of England, the Apothecaries' Society of London, the University of Oxford, the University of Cambridge, the University of Durham, the University of London, the College of Physicians of Edinburgh, the College of Surgeons of Edinburgh, the faculty of Physicians and Surgeons of Glasgow, the Edinburgh and Aberdeen Universities collectively, the Universities of Glasgow and St. Andrew's collectively, the King and Queen's College of Physicians in Ireland, the Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland, the Apothecaries' Hall of Ireland, the University of Dublin, the Queen's University in Ireland, and six persons to be nominated by her Majesty, four of whom shall be appointed for England, one for Scotland, and one for Ireland, and of a president to be elected by the general council. Members of the general council representing the medical corporations must be qualified to be registered under this Act. The members to be chosen for five years, but capable of re-appointment. The general council shall appoint a registrar, who shall act as secretary to the general council, and as a registrar for England, and the branch councils of Scotland and Ireland shall also appoint a registrar and other officers. The members of councils to be paid fees for attendance and travelling expenses. It is the duty of the registrars to keep their respective registers correct in accordance with the provisions of this Act. Every person now possessed and becoming possessed of any one or more of the following qualifications, viz.:—Fellow Licentiate or Extra Licentiate of the Royal College of Physicians of London, Fellow or Licentiate of the Royal College of Physicians of Edinburgh, Fellow or Licentiate of the King's and Queen's College of Physicians of Ireland, Fellow, or Member, or Licentiate in Midwifery of the Royal College of Surgeons of England, Fellow or Licentiate of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh, Fellow or Licentiate of the Faculty of Physicians and Surgeons of Glasgow, Fellow or Licentiate of the Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland, Licentiate of the Society of Apothecaries, London, Licentiate of the Apothecaries Hall, Dublin, Doctor, or Bachelor, or Licentiate of Medicine, or Master of Surgery of any University of the United Kingdom, or Doctors of Medicine by doctorate granted prior to passing of this Act by the Archbishop of Canterbury, and Doctor of Medicine of any foreign or colonial University, practising as a physician in the United Kingdom before the 1st day of October, 1858, who shall produce certificates to the satisfaction of the council of his having taken his degree of Doctor of Medicine after regular examination, or who shall satisfy the council that there is sufficient reason for admitting him to be registered, shall on payment of a fee not exceeding two pounds, be entitled to be registered, on producing to the registrar of the branch council the document conferring or evidencing the qualification. The general council shall make orders for regulating the registers to be kept under this Act. Any person who was actually practising medicine in

England before the 1st of August, 1815, shall, on payment of a fee, be entitled to be registered. The council may require information as to the course of study, &c., required for obtaining the qualification. Any two or more colleges may unite in conducting the examination required for qualifications to be registered. And any defect in the course of study or mode of examination may be represented by the general council to her Majesty's Privy Council. The Privy Council may suspend the right of registration in respect of qualification granted by any college or body in default. Any medical practitioner convicted of felony may be struck off the register. Every person registered under this Act to be entitled, according to his qualification, to practise medicine, or surgery, or both, in any part of her Majesty's dominions, and to demand and recover in any court of law, with full cost of suit, reasonable charges for professional aid, advice, and visits, and the cost of any medicines rendered or supplied. None but registered persons to recover charges. The words "legally qualified medical practitioner," as used in any Act of Parliament, to be construed to mean a person registered under this Act. Every person duly registered to be exempt from serving on juries and all inquests whatever, and from serving in the militia, &c. And no person to hold any appointment as a physician, surgeon, or other medical officer, unless he be registered under this Act. And no certificate required by any Act in force, or that may hereafter be passed, from any physician or other medical practitioner to be valid, unless the person signing the same shall be registered under this Act. Any registrar who shall wilfully make or cause to be made any falsifications in any matter relating to the register shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and if any person shall wilfully procure or attempt to procure himself to be registered by any false or fraudulent representation or declaration, either verbally or in writing, to be guilty of misdemeanor. And any person who shall falsely pretend to be or take or use the name or title of a physician, doctor of medicine, licentiate of medicine and surgery, or any name, title, addition, or description, implying that he is registered under this Act, shall, upon a summary conviction for any such offence, pay a sum not exceeding twenty pounds. The general council may by special orders dispense with such provisions as to them shall seem fit in favour of persons now practising medicine in any part of her Majesty's dominions other than Great Britain and Ireland, and also in favour of persons practising medicine or surgery in the United Kingdom on foreign or colonial diplomas or degrees before the passing of this Act, and also in favour of any persons who have held appointments as surgeons in the army, navy, or militia, or as surgeons in the public service, or in the service of any charitable institution, and also in favour of medical students who shall have commenced their professional studies before the passing of this Act. New charters may be granted to the College of Physicians of London and of Edinburgh, and to the King's and Queen's College of Physicians in Ireland. The general council shall cause to be published under their direction a book containing a list of medicines

and compounds, and the manner of preparing them, together with the true weights and measures by which they are to be prepared and mixed, to be called “British Pharmacopœia.”

TURNPIKE ACTS CONTINUANCE.

CAP. LXXIII.—*An Act to continue certain Turnpike Acts in Great Britain.*
(2nd August, 1858.)

SCOTLAND.

LUNATICS.

CAP. LXXXIX.—*An Act to amend an Act of the last Session for the Regulation of the Care and Treatment of Lunatics, and for the Provision, Maintenance, and Regulation of Lunatic Asylums in Scotland.*
(2nd August, 1858.)

The Board of Commissioners of Lunacy may grant to the governors of poorhouses licences for the reception of pauper lunatics.

IRELAND.

VACCINATION.

CAP. LXIV.—*An Act to make further Provision for the Practice of Vaccination in Ireland.* (2nd August, 1858.)

The dispensary committee may divide dispensary districts, and require the medical officer to attend for purposes of vaccination. The board of guardians may allow such medical officer, in addition to any salary or allowance, the sum of one pound for every twenty cases of successful vaccination performed by him in each year. The medical officer to report annually the number of successful vaccinations performed. All expenses to be charged to the electoral divisions comprising such dispensary districts. Any person who shall produce or attempt to produce in any person by inoculation with variolous matter, or by wilful exposure to variolous matter, or to anything impregnated with variolous matter, or wilfully by any other means produce the disease of small-pox in any person, to be liable to be proceeded against and convicted summarily before any two or more justices of the peace in petty sessions, the cost of proceedings to be paid out of the rates of the union at large.

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